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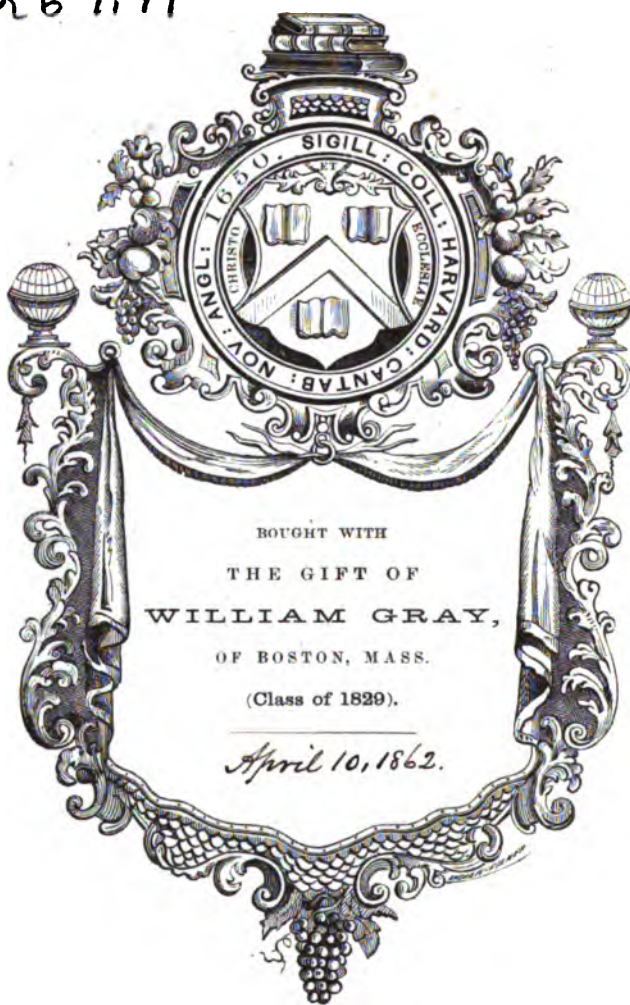
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ANNALS

OF

BRITISH LEGISLATION:

BEING

A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND OF COMMISSIONERS, AND OF SESSIONAL
PAPERS GENERALLY, OF

THE HOUSES OF LORDS AND COMMONS;

TOGETHER WITH

ACCOUNTS OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION, TARIFFS, AND FACTS,
RELATING TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

EDITED BY

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Dedicated by special permission to His Royal Highness Prince Albert.

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P R E F A C E.

THE Second Volume of the "Annals" completes the Parliamentary labours for the year 1856. The preliminaries of Legislation, in the shape of Returns, Reports of Committees, and Bills, are now, for the first time, placed side by side with the Statutes of the Session. Ample materials are thus afforded for studying the Laws of the Realm, illustrated and elucidated by the circumstances which occasioned them, and the wants they were intended to meet. From the absence of such a collection heretofore has not unfrequently arisen uncertainty in the interpretation of Statutes. In conformity with the plan of this work, the Statutes are classified under the respective Series of Finance, Law, Population, &c.; and a further division has been introduced in the Statutes as applying to the United Kingdom, Great Britain, England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The Documents inserted in the present volume, under the Series A, "Finance, Commerce, and Agriculture," are numerous, and of considerable interest. The Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on "Sound Dues" gives the history and operation of a tax which has for centuries interrupted commerce and navigation. A treaty for the redemption of these dues has lately been concluded. The Report on "Masters and Operatives" contains valuable materials in connection with "strikes;" and affords abundant evidence of their evil effects on trade and on the labouring classes, together with suggestions for the institution of Boards of Conciliation to adjudicate disputes between masters and operatives, somewhat on the model of the Conseils de Prudhommes in France. The Reports on the state of various

branches of industry, as illustrated in the Paris Universal Exhibition, by men distinguished in Science and Art, and by Committees of Chambers of Commerce and Manufacture in the United Kingdom, are of great value. They comprise in many cases complete histories of trades and manufactures, and give a cosmopolitan view of the progress made in different countries. The Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on "Public Moneys" contains the initiation only of an inquiry into a most important subject, to be further investigated in the Session 1857. The Report on "Civil Service Superannuation" gives much information on the Salaries of Civil Servants. An inquiry into the operation of the Bank Charter Act, 1844, having become necessary, the republication of the Report and Evidence before the Committees of the Houses of Lords and Commons, 1847, on "Commercial Distress," will be found of great interest. The method of "Assaying Silver and Gold Wares," and the "Rating of Mines," have also been the subjects of inquiry by Committees of the House of Commons, and the evidence on these subjects has been inserted.

Among the Papers and Accounts, the most important are the Financial Accounts of the United Kingdom for the financial year ended 31st March, 1856; the consecutive Accounts of Income and Expenditure; the Trade and Navigation Accounts for 1855; the completion of the monthly Board of Trade Returns for the year 1856; the Reports on Agricultural Statistics for Ireland and Scotland; and numerous returns on Bank Notes, Deficiency Bills, &c.

The Public General Statutes under this Series comprise several Acts on Consolidated Funds, Annuities, and Exchequer Bills; an Act amending the Laws relating to the Duties on Fire Insurance; and the Joint Stock Companies Act, 1856. The two Statutes on Mercantile Law Amendment for England, Ireland, and Scotland, are intended to assimilate the Laws on Trade and Commerce in the United Kingdom, and are the results of a Report of a Royal Commission, instituted for the purpose in 1852. The Statute on

Drafts on Bankers was called for to settle a law which had been the subject of much legal investigation, in the case of *Bellamy v. Majoribanks*.

In Series B, "Diplomacy and War," there are but few papers, yet the Report and Correspondence on the Slave Trade are of importance, on account of the increased traffic in Slaves in Cuba and Brazil. There will be found also interesting returns of the Army Prize Fund and Russian Prizes, and a protocol on the Danish Succession.

Series C, "Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education," contains the Minutes of Committees of Council on Education; interesting reports on Science and Art, and Normal Schools; the Report of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and further evidence on the same before the Committee of the House of Commons.

The Public Statutes in this Series comprise, besides Statutes of a purely ecclesiastical character, the important Act for the good government of the University of Cambridge, and two Acts on Reformatory Schools.

Under Series D, "Railways, Shipping, and Postal Communication," there will be found important returns on Railway Capital and Railway Accidents; also the completion of the monthly accounts of Vessels employed in the Foreign and Coasting Trade for the year 1855, and complete accounts of Navigation for 1856, besides returns on Pilotage, &c.

Series E, "Law, Justice, and Crime," contains much information on crime and tickets-of-leave. The Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Transportation, and the tables of Criminal Offenders for the year 1855, for England, Scotland, and Ireland, give at one view the comparative criminality of, and the decrease or increase of, different classes of crimes in each country. The same result is also deduced from the Reports of the Prisons of the United Kingdom. The report of Mr. Greave on Criminal Procedure contains many valuable suggestions; and useful information will be derived from the returns of County Courts and Courts of Bankruptcy.

Under this Series the Public General Statutes comprise the Act to render more effectual the Police in Counties and Boroughs, the important Act for consolidating and amending the Law of Bankruptcy in Scotland, and the Act to amend the Procedure of the Courts of Common Law in Ireland.

Series F, "British India, Colonies, and Dependencies," contains a voluminous abstract of the Statistics of each Colony, showing their Area and Population, state of Education, Commerce, Revenue, &c.; also several papers on the Administration of British India. The Report of the Committee of the Legislative Council of Canada, on the subject of a mutual abolition of certain duties upon the productions of Canada and the West Indian Colonies, comprises a full account of the Resources and Progress of Canada. The regular returns of the gold discoveries in Australia are of permanent interest.

In Series G, "Population, Municipal, and Parliamentary," there are several returns on Poor Law, a Report on the Metropolis Water Supply, and a Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Contracts for Public Departments. The Parliamentary Statistics are of particular interest, and they form a practical commentary on the labours of the past Session of Parliament.

Series H, "Health, Enclosure, &c.," comprises valuable papers on Cholera, Epidemics, Medical Charities, Vaccination, Lunacy, &c. Several Statistics are inserted under this Series.

With the Second Volume of the "Annals," the First Volume of the Series A, "Finance, Commerce, and Agriculture," is completed; and when the First Volumes of each Series are also completed, separate Prefaces and Indexes will be issued.

The utility of the "Annals of British Legislation" as a work of reference and of general interest will be best appreciated from the fact that, in two convenient octavo volumes, of about 500 pages each, is contained the substratum, or all that is practically essential, of upwards of 1,000 papers, printed by order of the Houses of Lords and Commons, and by command of Her Majesty,

in the Session of 1856, comprising 10 volumes of Public Bills, 4 by the House of Lords, and 6 by the House of Commons; 17 volumes of Reports of Committees and Evidence, 6 by the House of Lords, and 11 by the House of Commons; 26 volumes of Accounts and Papers by the House of Commons; and 20 volumes of Reports of Commissioners presented by command. In all, 73 volumes folio, besides 6 volumes of Minutes of Proceedings, Votes, &c., 4 volumes of Indices, and 120 Public Acts of Parliament, having together upwards of 50,000 pages.

All uncertainty respecting the execution of the "Annals of British Legislation," has been now removed; and it is hoped that the subscribers will be gratified at finding that, both as regards the manner of publication, and the extent of the work, the plan indicated in the prospectus has been strictly and faithfully carried out.

LEONE LEVI.

*Lincoln's Inn, London,
June 20th, 1857.*

ANNALS OF BRITISH LEGISLATION.

SESSION 1856.—19 VICTORIA.

Series A. FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

No. LII.—ADULTERATION OF FOOD.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the adulteration of Food, Drinks, and Drugs.

THE Committee consisted of Mr. Scholefield, Mr. Cowper, Mr. Alderman Cubitt, Viscount Ebrington, Viscount Goderich, Mr. Gregson, Lord Claude Hamilton, Messrs. Kinnaird, Knight, Moffatt, Otway, Peacocke, Sheridan, Swift, Charles Villiers, and Wise.

The Committee sat 14 days, from the 22nd February to the 11th July, 1856, and examined 42 witnesses. The Committee reported as follows:—

Your Committee have inquired into the subject referred to them, and in the course of their investigation have examined a great number of witnesses, comprising men of high scientific attainments, as well as those whose practical knowledge as dealers seemed to point them out as persons likely to give useful information.

Among the scientific witnesses examined, were—Dr. Hassall, well known by his able investigation of the subject of adulterations of food; Mr. Warington, chemical operator to the Apothecaries' Company; Dr. Normandy; Mr. Simon and Dr. Letheby, the late and present officers of health in the city of London; Dr. Thompson, professor of chemistry at St. Thomas's Hospital; Mr. Redwood, professor of chemistry to the Pharmaceutical Society; Mr. Simmonds, author of a work on the commercial products of the vegetable kingdom; Mr. Postgate, a surgeon, and chemical lecturer in Birmingham; Mr. Phillips, chief officer of the chemical department of the Board of Inland Revenue; Dr. Taylor, professor of medical jurisprudence, at Guy's Hospital; Dr. Waller Lewis, medical officer to the General Post-office; Mr. Quekett, professor in the Royal College of

Surgeons; Mr. Thompson, an analytical chemist; Mr. Blyth, lecturer on natural philosophy, at St. Mary's Hospital; Dr. Challice; Mr. Wakley, coroner for Middlesex; Mr. Jacob Bell; Dr. Carpenter, of University College; Dr. Moore Neligan, of Dublin; Dr. Richter; and Dr. Bingley, professor at the Medical Institute of Sheffield.

Though the witnesses differed both as to the extent to which adulteration is carried on and as to its nature and effects, your Committee cannot avoid the conclusion that adulteration widely prevails, though under circumstances of very various character. As regards foreign products, some arrive in this country in an adulterated condition, while others are adulterated by the English dealer. Other commodities, again, the produce of this country, are shown to be in an adulterated state when passing into the hands of the dealers, while others undergo adulteration by the dealers themselves.

Not only is the public health thus exposed to danger, and pecuniary fraud committed on the whole community, but the public morality is tainted, and the high commercial character of this country seriously lowered both at home and in the eyes of foreign countries. Though, happily, very many refuse, under every temptation, to falsify the quality of their wares, there are, unfortunately, large numbers, who, though reluctantly practising deception, yield to the pernicious contagion of example, or to the hard pressure of competition forced upon them by their less scrupulous neighbours.

Without entering into voluminous details of the evidence taken, your Committee would enumerate the leading articles which have been proved to be more or less commonly adulterated; these are, arrowroot, adulterated with potato and other starches; bread, with potatoes, plaster of Paris, alum, and sulphate of copper; bottled fruits and vegetables with certain salts of copper; coffee with chicory, roasted wheat, beans, and mangel wurzel; chicory with roasted wheat, carrots, sawdust, and Venetian red; cocoa with arrowroot, potato-flour, sugar, chicory, and some ferruginous red earths; cayenne with ground rice, mustard husk, &c., coloured with red lead, Venetian red, and turmeric; gin, with grains of Paradise, sulphuric acid, and cayenne; lard with potato-flour, mutton-suet, alum, carbonate of soda, and caustic lime; mustard with wheat-flour and turmeric; marmalade with apples or turnips; porter and stout (though sent out in a pure state from the brewers) with water, sugar, treacle, salt, alum, cocculus Indicus, grains of Paradise, nux vomica, and sulphuric acid; pickles and preserves with salts of copper; snuff with various chromates, red lead, lime, and powdered glass; tobacco with water, sugar, rhubarb, and treacle; vinegar with water, sugar, and sulphuric acid; jalap with powdered wood; opium with poppy capsules, wheat-flour, powdered wood, and sand; scammony with wheat-flour, chalk, resin, and sand; confectionery with plaster of Paris and other similar ingredients, coloured with various pigments of a highly poisonous nature; and acid drops, purporting to be compounded of Jargonelle pear, Ripstone pippin, lemon, &c., with essential oils containing Prussic acid or other dangerous ingredients.

The adulteration of drugs is extensively practised; and when it is borne in mind that the correctness of a medical prescription rests on an assumed standard of strength and purity in the drugs or compounds employed, and how frequently life itself depends upon the efficacy of the medicines prescribed, it is difficult to exaggerate the evils arising from this prevalent fraud.

The adulteration of drinks deserves also special notice, because your Committee cannot but conclude that the intoxication so deplorably prevalent is in many cases less due to the natural properties of the drinks themselves than to the admixture of narcotics or other noxious substances intended to supply the properties lost by dilution.

Though adulterations prevail more or less in all districts, it may be assumed, as a rule, that the poorer the district, the greater is the amount of adulteration. Nor have the poor the same power to protect themselves against such frauds as their richer neighbours; they are necessarily limited to such means of purchase as are afforded by the immediate locality in which they reside, and are, moreover, too often bound to one dealer by the facilities of credit which he affords them.

These adulterations may be classified under three heads: those of which the object is to lower the price of the article adulterated, by the admixture of substances of a cheaper kind; those which are intended to improve the appearance of the adulterated article, and thus in many cases to deceive the public as to its quality; and those which are practised for the purpose of simulating some property injured or destroyed in the process of adulteration.

Adulterations in each of these classes are of two kinds: those in which are employed substances of an innocuous character, and those in which the mixtures are more or less injurious to health, either directly by the noxious properties of the ingredients, or indirectly by lowering the nutritive qualities of the article adulterated.

In dealing with these various adulterations, it is necessary to distinguish between the pecuniary fraud practised on the public, and the injury to public health. If, as regards the adulteration of articles with substances of a cheaper and innocuous character, the public derive the full benefit of this cheapness in a lower price, it would be difficult, if not unwise, for the Legislature to interfere, unless it could do so by requiring that every such article be sold as a mixture, as distinguished from the article in its pure state. This the law already requires as to the article of coffee, and also as to the article of bread, which, unless made of wheat flour alone, must be distinctly marked with the letter M. But, whenever an article is so adulterated as to involve pecuniary fraud or injury to health, it appears to your Committee to be the duty of the Legislature to provide some efficient remedy.

It has been objected that the best course will be to leave the buyer to take care of himself. But there are many adulterations which it is impossible for the buyer to detect. Already the law takes note of frauds in weights and measures, of injuries likely to result to the public health

from the sale of unwholesome animal food, and indeed of many adulterations, though in most cases only with a view to fiscal considerations, and not to those of a moral or sanitary character.

It is said, too, that there are many frauds which legislation cannot reach or punish. But, on the other hand, it would be difficult to tell the numberless frauds which legislation may prevent.

The great difficulty of legislating on this subject lies in putting an end to the liberty of fraud without affecting the freedom of commerce.

With a view to form an opinion as to the best remedy for this growing evil, your Committee have obtained evidence as to the law on adulterations in other countries, and especially in France, Belgium, Germany, and the United States. In this object your Committee have been materially assisted by returns procured through the kindness of Lord Clarendon from some of our Ministers at foreign Courts.

As to the present state of the law in this country, your Committee received much valuable information from Mr. S. R. Goodman, the legal adviser to the Justices of the city of London.

The following is a brief statement of the laws of different countries on the subject of adulterations.

In France, a law, bearing date the 27th March, 1851, confirmed and extended the penal code to all adulterations in "alimentary and medicinal substances." To this law was added one of the 5th May, 1855, applicable to the adulteration of drinks. The law of March, 1851, was founded upon two Reports of a Commission of Inquiry, bearing date the 24th January and 25th February, 1851. The law of May, 1855, was preceded by a like Report made the 29th March, 1855.

The provisions of these laws apply: 1st. To those who shall adulterate any alimentary or medicinal substances intended for sale.

2nd. To those who shall sell, or expose for sale such substances, knowing them to be adulterated.

If the article adulterated contains substances injurious to health, the fine ranges from 50 to 500 francs, with imprisonment from three months to two years; these punishments being applicable even in cases where the adulteration is known to the buyer or consumer.

A penalty of 16 to 25 francs, and imprisonment from six to ten days, or one of these modes of punishment, according to circumstances, is imposed on those who, "without legitimate cause," shall have in their shops or warehouses any such adulterated articles. If the adulterated article be injurious to health, the fine may be increased to 50 francs, and the imprisonment to fifteen days.

The fine and imprisonment may be doubled if a delinquent has been previously convicted within five years of his last offence.

The adulterated articles shall be confiscated, and if injurious to health, destroyed.

The authorities may make public announcement of the particulars of the offence by placard and advertisement.

A special "Ordonnance de Police," in Paris, applies to the manufacture and sale of confectionery, and forbids the use, for colouring, of all mineral matter, and all poisonous vegetable matter. Confectioners are required to envelope coloured confectionery in paper marked with their name and address, and are made personally responsible for accidents arising from the consumption of the articles they sell. Confectioners' shops are to be visited, for the purpose of seeing that they conform to these regulations. As an additional precaution, the "Conseil de Salubrité" of the city of Paris, a body consisting of eminent physicians, chemists, and other persons, publishes a list of colouring matters which may be employed by confectioners, with instructions as to the manner of mixing them, and a list of the colouring matters the use of which is expressly forbidden.

In Belgium, a law bearing date the 17th March, 1856, declares that all who shall have adulterated, or caused to be adulterated, any articles of food or drink intended for sale, shall be liable to an imprisonment from eight days to one year, and a fine of from 50 to 1,000 francs, or to either punishment alone.

The penalties are divided into two classes. The first applies to persons who have adulterated, or caused to be adulterated, eatables, drinkable liquors, or any articles of food intended to be offered for sale, the penalty being, as already stated, from eight days' to a year's imprisonment, and a fine of from 50 to 1,000 francs. In the same class are included persons who shall knowingly sell, or expose for sale, adulterated articles, or shall have given instructions calculated to facilitate or lead to such adulteration.

The second class comprises persons who unintentionally sell, or expose for sale, adulterated food, and who are liable only to simple police punishments.

The mere fact of knowingly keeping adulterated articles of food intended for sale, renders the person so offending liable to imprisonment from a week to a year, and to a fine of from 26 to 500 francs. When the punishment reaches six months' imprisonment, the court can withdraw the "patente" (license to trade) from the offender during the whole period of his incarceration, which is equivalent to preventing him from carrying on his business. A copy of the conviction is to be posted up at the door of the person condemned, or inserted in such journals as the court may determine, at the expense of the culprit. All adulterated articles of food in the possession of the delinquent are to be confiscated.

In Prussia, the municipal law enacts that "no person shall knowingly sell or communicate to other persons for their use, articles of food or drink which possess properties prejudicial to health, under a penalty of fine or bodily punishment." Those who are found guilty of knowingly selling victuals which are damaged or spoiled, or mixed with deleterious additions, may be held incapable of carrying on the same branch of business. The articles may be confiscated. Whosoever mixes articles of food with foreign substances, for the purpose of increasing their weight or bulk, or of deceiving purchasers as to their quality, is liable to be proceeded against

for fraud. With regard to drugs, the law forbids their being dispensed by any other persons than apothecaries legally appointed.

In Hamburg, adulterations of food are the subject of police regulations, involving fine and imprisonment.

In Lubeck, such adulterations are treated as acts of fraud, and dealt with by police authority. The grinding of blighted corn with good corn is prohibited.

¶ In Holland, by a law of the 22nd May, 1829, any person adulterating bread or flour, or any article of food or drink, with any poisonous matter, is liable to an imprisonment of from two to five years, and a fine of from 200 to 500 florins, and to the revocation of his "patente" during his imprisonment. The same penalties apply to those who knowingly sell such adulterated articles, and to those who supply the forbidden ingredient, knowing the purpose for which it is to be used. A less severe punishment is inflicted on those who adulterate articles of food or drink with ingredients not poisonous, but injurious to health, as well as on those who offer them for sale. To the other penalties are added the publication of the names of the offenders, and the confiscation of the adulterated goods.

In Spain, the law, besides authorising the inspection of drugs at the Custom-house, permits the dispensing of drugs only by apothecaries legally appointed, and absolutely forbids the sale of secret medicines.

In the United States special laws have been passed "to prevent the importation of adulterated and spurious drugs and medicines." By these it is enacted that all drugs and medicines shall, before passing the Custom-house, be examined and appraised, as well in reference to their quality and purity as to their value. All medicinal preparations are to have the name of the manufacturer affixed to each parcel. Adulterated or deteriorated drugs and medicines are not to be allowed to pass the Custom-house; but the owner or consignee has the right of calling for a re-examination, or further analysis, if dissatisfied with the examiner's return. The Secretary of the Treasury is to appoint suitably qualified persons, at each of the ports of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans, as special examiners of drugs and medicines. A Treasury Minute prescribes the manner of carrying out the act, and gives a list of the principal articles, with the results of special tests agreeing with the standards referred to in the law; and all articles are entitled to entry when ascertained by analysis to conform to those standards. Patent and secret medicines are subject to the same examination, and disposition after examination, as other medical preparations, and are not permitted to pass the Custom-house unless the examiner be satisfied that they are fit and safe to be used for medicinal purposes.

In the State of New York, the law expressly forbids adulterations of flour, hops, and spirits. Any one knowingly offering for sale flour mixed with Indian meal, or with any other mixture, or with unsound flour, is liable to a penalty of five dollars for every cask. Any one mixing with hops any foreign or improper substances, or in any manner adulterating

their quality, is deemed guilty of misdemeanour, and punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both. Any one adulterating spirits with any poisonous substance, or substance injurious to health, or any one selling such spirits, knowing them to be adulterated, is deemed guilty of misdemeanour, and punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both; the fine in no case to exceed 1,000 dollars, and the imprisonment in no case to exceed four years. The law also provides against the adulteration of oils, against the deceptive packing of hay, and even against frauds in linens and other goods, containing fewer yards of measurement than are marked upon them.

In England the law affords redress to consumers in cases of adulteration by action, if the injury be individual in its character; by indictment, if the injury be general; by summary charge before a magistrate; and by proceedings instituted by the Excise. The process of action or indictment is at once too costly and too cumbrous for general adoption. That by summary charge before a magistrate, as well as that originating with the Excise, applies only to a few special articles, which are named in particular Acts, or which are subject to the supervision, for fiscal purposes, of the Board of Inland Revenue; but your Committee are of opinion that it would be most desirable that, in all cases of the sale of an adulterated or fictitious article, a cheap and easy remedy, by summary charge before a magistrate, should be afforded to the person upon whom the fraud had been practised, and they would strongly recommend the propriety of such a change in the present law on this subject as would effect this object.

Your Committee desire especially to call attention to the provisions of the Bread Act, 6 & 7 Will. IV. cap. 37. Section 2 provides that bread may be made of wheat-flour, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, peas, beans, rice, or potatoes, with any common salt, pure water, eggs, milk, barm, leaven, potato or other yeast, and with no other ingredients, subject to certain regulations. Any mixture besides those allowed in Section 2 involves a penalty of 10*l*., or not less than 5*l*.; or, in default, an imprisonment not exceeding six months, with or without hard labour; and, if the magistrate think fit, publicity of the offence by advertisement. Any one mixing with the corn, meal, or flour, any ingredient not the genuine produce of the corn or grain; or any one selling, or offering for sale, separately or mixed, any meal or flour of one sort of grain, as the meal or flour of any other sort, or any ingredient mixed with the meal or flour so sold, is liable to a penalty of 20*l*., and not less than 5*l*. All bread made with mixed meal or flour must be marked with a Roman M; the penalty for neglecting this provision being a fine not exceeding 10*s*. for every pound weight of bread not so marked. Magistrates, or peace officers by their warrants, may search premises, and seize any adulterated flour or bread, and search for any forbidden ingredient. The penalty, if ingredients for adulteration are found, is 10*l*., or not less than 40*s*., for the first offence, 5*l*. for the second, and 10*l*. for every subsequent offence, or in default, six months' imprisonment, with publicity as to the names of offenders. The Act also provides for an appeal to quarter sessions, and declares that no

person shall be convicted unless complaint is made within 48 hours after the offence, or within such reasonable time as to the justices may seem fit.

Your Committee have given the provisions of the Bread Act in some detail, because it seems to them to comprise much that may be useful in framing a measure applicable to adulterations generally.

It is impossible to frame any enactment on this subject which shall rely on strict definitions. The object of the law is to strike at fraud, and wherever a fraudulent intention can be proved, there to inflict a penalty. What constitutes fraud must be left to the interpretation of the administrators of the law. Thus mixtures of an innocuous character, made known by the seller, or used for the preservation of the article, cannot be forbidden without danger to the needful freedom of commerce, and ought not to be interpreted as coming within the provisions of a penal law. Nor should those provisions apply wherever the seller can afford satisfactory proof that he has himself been deceived, and was not conscious of the adulteration practised; unless he have evinced a culpable ignorance of the trade which he professes to follow.

Subject to these qualifications, the law should be clear and positive in forbidding adulteration, and in punishing those who practise it.

Hitherto the progress of legislation has not kept pace with the ingenuity of fraud, which has not scrupled to avail itself of every improvement in chemistry or the arts which could subserve its purpose.

Although, however, the means of adulteration have greatly increased, so also, fortunately, have the facilities for detection, especially by the improved use of the microscope, which has been employed by Dr. Hassall and others with signal success.

At first, no doubt, some difficulty would be experienced in finding persons qualified to conduct the required chemical and microscopical examinations; but the want will soon give rise to the needful supply. This want has been already felt by the Board of Inland Revenue, which has been compelled, for the purposes of the analyses requisite in cases of adulterated articles of Excise, to educate persons for this special duty. In addition to about 4,000 officers, scattered over the country, whose experience enables them to detect many adulterations, and to discover cases of strong suspicion, the Board employs about 60 to 70 analytical chemists, whose numbers are recruited by students, educated for this purpose at University College, to the number of 14 in every year. Mr. Phillips, the chief officer of the chemical department of the Board of Inland Revenue, states that the practice is for the officers, if they suspect a trader of adulterations, or on information given to them, to go and procure samples. Many are competent to examine samples on the spot. If they have any doubt of their own judgment, they send them to the laboratory to be further examined. And he adds, as showing the result of the system adopted by the Board, that adulteration has been totally stopped in some articles, and much diminished in others, from the very fact that traders know they are liable to inspection by the Excise officers.

It has been suggested that the prevention of adulterations in food might be accomplished by an extension of the system of the Board of Inland Revenue; but your Committee are of opinion that no machinery for this purpose will work satisfactorily unless the agents employed derive their authority from corporate or other local governing bodies.

It will be desirable, therefore, to empower municipal or other local or district authorities to appoint an officer, or officers, who, on complaint made, or in cases of reasonable suspicion, shall procure portions of any article supposed to be adulterated, with a view to their examination or analysis by some duly qualified person appointed for that purpose. On the report of such persons, if it confirm the suspicion of adulteration, a summons shall be issued, and the case be investigated before the justices, who shall have power to inflict summary punishment, by fine or imprisonment, in every case where pecuniary fraud or danger to health shall have been proved. The justices should also be empowered to publish the names of offenders. The advantages of publicity have been urged by many witnesses, and especially by Dr. Hassall and Mr. Wakley, who attribute a recent great diminution in the amount of adulteration to the publication of names and other particulars in the reports of the "*Lancet* Commission." It is essential that a right of appeal should lie to the Court of Quarter Sessions.

With regard to coloured confectionery, your Committee recommend that authority should be given to local Boards of Health, or other governing bodies, to forbid the use, for colouring, of all mineral matter, and all poisonous vegetable matter.

But although your Committee desire to leave the execution of the law against adulteration in the hands of the local authorities, they are of opinion that very valuable assistance would be afforded to such bodies in ascertaining the fact of adulteration, if one or more scientific analysers were to be appointed under the authority of the General Board of Health, to whom the local authorities might, whenever they thought fit, refer any articles seized under suspicion of adulteration for analysis, and who would thus enable the persons charged with the administration of the law to obtain at once, and without cost, a fully competent opinion in all difficult cases.

These analysers should also undertake to examine any articles sent to them by private individuals, on payment of the expenses of such examination.

Your Committee would also suggest that the General Board of Health should from time to time issue such information as to the nature of the adulterations of articles of food, &c., injurious to health, as may be obtained in the progress of scientific research on this subject, and as would serve to guide the local authorities in their endeavours to detect these frauds.

With reference to drugs, your Committee are of opinion that no inspection at the outports would guarantee to the consumer the purity of commodities passing through the hands of intermediate parties; and the exclusion of impure drugs would operate injuriously, by interfering with

the supply obtained by scientific processes, calculated to extract valuable matter even from products seemingly almost worthless.

It has been suggested that chemists and druggists should be allowed to exercise their calling only under license. At present, to use the words of one of the witnesses, Mr. Jacob Bell, a man may be a shoemaker to-day and a chemist and dispenser of drugs to-morrow, though he cannot assume the name of "pharmaceutical chemist." The question of licenses, however, may perhaps be properly deferred till it be seen how far the efforts of the Pharmaceutical Society and a more general system of inspection may prove successful. The existing powers of inspection in England are confined to the College of Physicians and the Apothecaries' Company. The powers of the latter are very limited, extending only to apothecaries' shops, and in no way to those of chemists and druggists. The College of Physicians has authority to inspect both one and the other; but this authority is confined to the limits of the city of London, where inspection takes place three times a year. The inspection, however, seems to be too cursory to be of any great utility.

It has been shown that much good has arisen from the establishment of the Pharmaceutical Society, the members of which being specially educated in the knowledge of drugs, are better able than heretofore to make proper selections and to detect adulterations. Several witnesses, too, have borne testimony to the great advantage which would ensue if poor-law guardians and managers of hospitals and other similar institutions would, instead of accepting, as they too often do, the lowest tender for drugs, and, indeed, for articles of food also, cause them to be properly inspected, and, if needful, analysed before admitting them into use.

Though not coming strictly within the scope of the inquiry entrusted to them, your Committee cannot forbear calling attention to the evidence concerning patent medicines, the sale of poisons, and the state of the pharmacopœias of the three kingdoms.

With regard to patent medicines, there can be no doubt that the public health is endangered by the use of several of these compounds; and your Committee are of opinion that the Stamp Duty, by giving them a seeming Government sanction, has an injurious influence in encouraging their sale and consumption, and should be abandoned, whenever this can be done with a due regard to the wants of the public revenue.

The unrestricted sale of poisons is a matter of pressing importance, and deserves the early attention of the Legislature. At the present moment, the most violent poisons may be universally sold, without any restriction, except such as is afforded by the sense of moral responsibility on the part of the dealer. It is needless to point out the serious consequences which frequently ensue from this unrestrained freedom. To take a familiar instance, it is stated in evidence that the essential oil of bitter almonds, and what is called "almond flavour," of very various strength, and containing highly dangerous elements, are openly and commonly sold for culinary purposes, and, in the hands of servants wholly ignorant of their properties,

used in quantities often dangerous, and sometimes fatal. It is well worthy of consideration, whether the sale of poisons should not be forbidden, unless under the authority of a medical prescription, or under such conditions, as to witnesses, and formal entries of the names and addresses of purchasers, as may secure the needful amount of caution.

The evil arising from the existence of three distinct, and, in some important instances, widely differing pharmacopœias for the three kingdoms, is one too evident to need enforcement. The result is, that many of the prescriptions of one country are not only inefficacious, but often absolutely dangerous, if made up in either of the others. One of the witnesses states, that an Edinburgh prescription, containing a solution of morphia, made up in London, would involve the patient's taking twice the quantity intended. On the other hand, a patient taking prussic acid under an Edinburgh prescription, made up in London, would be taking only half the quantity intended; the Edinburgh prussic acid being twice the strength of the prussic acid of the London Pharmacopœia. This is an evil which can be remedied only by the combined efforts of the medical authorities of England, Ireland, and Scotland, to whom the subject should, without delay, be referred.

22nd July, 1856.

The following is an analysis of the leading points of the evidence received by the Committee in regard to some of the principal articles of food and drink.

BREAD.

Bread and flour, according to the evidence of a physician who came forward to prove the case of general adulteration, appear to be largely mixed with alum; as of twenty-four samples of bread, all contained alum, but no³ other substance except wheat-flour; and this was also the case upon a second analysis of twenty-five samples, including three sold by a company.

Another doctor of medicine also testified to the same effect, that "alum seems to be almost the exclusive adulteration of bread and flour," and that he "never found a sample of bread without alum;" and that in one case plaster of Paris was discovered in some flour, and the person who ground it was fined 100*l.* by a magistrate. The Health Officer of the City of London states his belief that alum is universally used in bread. A celebrated analytical chemist, and author of a work on the "Adulteration of Food," stated that he had found nothing positively deleterious in bread except alum. The Professor of Chemistry at St. Thomas's Hospital stated that the principal adulteration of flour within his knowledge was the admixture of inferior flour with the better sorts, and that he had found alum in bread, but did not believe it was mixed in injurious quantities. This opinion was also expressed by the chief officer of the chemical

department of the Board of Inland Revenue; while an active promoter of this inquiry only referred to alum as being generally used in the adulteration of bread, so far as his own experience was concerned, and stated that "a baking company established at Birmingham to supply the public with genuine bread, met with very great opposition from the public on account of the colour of their bread; having to explain to the people that bread was not naturally of a white appearance, but of a yellowish colour; and they had considerable difficulties in establishing their business."

It further appears, from the evidence of the Professor of Medical Jurisprudence and Chemistry at Guy's Hospital, Professor Taylor, that of many samples of best bread examined, there was only one which contained any trace of alum, or of anything except salt and phosphate of lime, with a little carbonate of lime; in an examination of bread once or twice a year for the last ten or twelve years, he has found no alum; this bread being that which is chiefly sold at the west end of London.

From the examination of an analytical chemist, Mr. Lewis Thompson, who is a licentiate of the Apothecaries' Company, and also a Member of the College of Surgeons, it appears that he discovered the constituent of alum in seventy-eight samples of bread purchased within the previous eight months, and he therefore assumed that alum had been mixed with the bread, although he was unable to find it; neither does he consider the finding of its constituent parts any proof that alum had been mixed in the bread, inasmuch as they might have been put in separately, and would not then form alum.

Another eminent analytical and consulting chemist and druggist stated that bread is almost constantly adulterated with alum.

A physician residing in Bermondsey, Dr. John Callie, stated his conviction that bread was generally adulterated with alum, producing injurious effects upon the health.

The Examiner in Physiology in the University of London, and Professor of Medical Jurisprudence in University College, Dr. W. B. Carpenter, also expressed the same opinion.

An analytical chemist and surgeon, residing in Pimlico, stated that "Bread, no matter what price was paid for it, or whether supplied to workhouses or to her Majesty the Queen, was adulterated with alum."

A London baker, who came forward on behalf of the trade, to deny that alum was universally used in bread, admitted that it was extensively used by the majority of London bakers.

ADULTERATION WITH ALUM.—EXTENT OF THE ADULTERATION.

The quantity of alum found in a 4-lb. loaf varies from 20 grains to 30 on the average; and it generally varies from 8 ounces to 2 lbs. to a batch of 116 loaves—on an average, 2 lbs. in 400 lbs. weight of bread. The practise of using alum is all but universal in the metropolis. In Leeds there were found 2 to 3 lbs. of alum for 20 stone of flour. Bread

sold at a low price in the poorer districts of the metropolis is more adulterated than that sold in the richer portions of it. The cheaper the bread, the larger the amount of alum. The adulteration is much the same whether the price of wheat is high or low. The assertion, that the adulteration of bread is universal, was disproved by Mr. Thomas Karr Callard, a baker, who said he never used a particle of alum in the manufacture of his bread; and he received forty-three letters from bakers in London and its vicinity, who were prepared to state on oath, if required, that they did not use alum. In London there are 2,000 to 3,000 bakers.

FORM IN WHICH THE ALUM IS FOUND.

It is doubtful whether alum has been found crystallized in bread. When alum is subjected to heat, it gives off its water, and the crystal is destroyed. Though alum be added to the mixture of which the bread is made, when baked the bread contains no alum. The constituents of alum, however, remain, and these are sulphuric acid, potash, and alumina, with water. Dr. Carpenter gave an instance, where he himself found alum crystallized in bread; it crunched between his teeth. The existence of alum in bread, in a crystallized form, does not depend upon the baking, but on the way the alum has been introduced. If the alum has been mixed with water and dissolved by boiling, there would never be any crystals. If it be diffused through the flour which is made into bread, there would be crystals. In the opinion of Mr. Rodger, the heat to which bread is exposed in baking would not cause alum to lose its liquid form and become crystallized.

HOW FAR INJURIOUS TO HEALTH.

Alum, taken day by day, produces constipation, or rather irritation of the bowels. It is not generally the case that there is enough taken of the deleterious substance to produce injury, which is observed at the time, but it is the introduction, day by day, of these substances into the body which does the mischief; alum being very astringent, the constant use of it is very injurious. Mr. Thompson thought that alum, in a decomposed state, is not injurious to health; if it had any action at all, it would be that of a purgative. In his opinion, the quantity of alum at present in use does not call for legislative interference. Dr. Challice stated that burnt alum has a very powerful effect upon the animal economy; when burnt, it goes through quite as great a heat as occurs in baking alum in bread. The heat necessary for baking a loaf is not sufficient to dissolve the alum. For the purpose of baking, it would be about 250 degrees; and it would require something like 400 or 500 degrees to dissolve alum in its component parts. The constant use of alum has the effect especially of creating irritability in the bowels—at one time constipation, and at another time a disposition to diarrhoea and dysentery. Alum of itself would supply no want in the human frame; it would be dissolved in the juices of the stomach and absorbed into the blood; it would not undergo any change. If received

into the system, it is expelled through the urine, probably. It is a very soluble substance; and the quantity of gastric fluid in the stomach is so large, that at a temperature of 100 degrees it must be dissolved and absorbed into the blood. Alum has also the effect of causing costiveness. Costiveness is a malady of town rather than of the country. In many instances it has been removed by the disuse of bakers' bread, and the employment of home-made bread. The mixture of alum is more common in the inferior kinds of bread than in the better kinds, because the bakers mix it with flour which would not otherwise make good bread. Many bakers will put up "country bread," meaning that they are not particular as to the whiteness and crispness of the bread. Bakers believe that their customers like white and very crisp bread, and it is to make that bread that alum is chiefly employed. What is called household bread is of a darker colour, and not so crisp in its texture. Mr. Postgate said, that he not long ago had an attack of fever, and being out of bread he sent to his baker for a loaf of bread at the time that he was under the influence of medicine; he knew that this bread contained alum, and it positively checked the action of the purgative medicine. Baron Liebig considered that alum, when well incorporated with the flour, is decomposed, the phosphoric acid of the phosphates of the wheat flour uniting with the alumina of the alum, and so forming an insoluble phosphate of alumina. Liebig regarded the soluble phosphates of wheat-flour as one of its most important constituents; and he stated that when alum is used, the phosphates are lost to the system, in consequence of the insoluble condition to which they are reduced. Liebig, therefore, condemned the use of alum; and where a very white bread is required, he has been in the habit for years past of recommending the employment of a small quantity of lime-water.

OBJECTS OF THE USE OF ALUM.—HOW FAR OBJECTIONABLE INDEPENDENTLY
OF THE SCORE OF HEALTH.

The effect of alum in bread is, that by decomposing a portion of gluten it whitens the bread; it also renders the bread a little shorter—it breaks more easily; the glutinous matter being partially neutralized, the bread has also a better appearance; but the beneficial action of alum upon bread is this, it prevents mouldiness. If a loaf be baked without alum, in consequence of the gluten remaining undecomposed, it sooner becomes mouldy in a damp situation; put a small quantity of alum into it, and the bread may be kept in a damp place without the risk of its becoming mouldy. Alum gives also a certain character of firmness to the bread. Alum prevents a bad flour from undergoing decomposition. Dr. Challice said that alum was substituted for salt, when salt was very dear; if an extra portion of salt were used instead of alum, the bread would be quite as good in appearance without the alum as with it. Alum enables bakers to use a very inferior flour, so that when the loaves are made in a batch they will separate nicely, and give it that cohesion necessary for them to

sell their bread. Alum improves the colour of the bread, and makes the loaves higher.

MEANS OF DETECTION.

The maceration of bread in water does not leave any taste of alum in the water, though this is not confirmed by Dr. Challice. Alum cannot be detected in the taste; it causes the bread to become dry sooner. Certain precautions are necessary in the detection of the alum; the ingredients used for its detection will actually dissolve a portion of alumina, if in excess; unless there is a precaution of boiling it away, no indication of alumina is obtained. Generally the means of detection are not so simple that the public can adopt them. These means are ordinarily soaking the bread in pure distilled water for a few hours, and gently pressing the bread and filtering the liquid coming from it, and testing the filtrate—that is, the liquid that comes from it; the alum being soluble, and the majority of the ingredients of bread being insoluble, you can so test it. The water is tested by adding ammonia to it, which will throw down the alumina, and then afterwards testing that precipitate to see that it possesses the proper proportion of the alumina, so as to avoid all source of error. But to do all this is not easy. The poor could not afford to have a stoppered bottle; moreover it would be dangerous—it would be a poison; any child getting hold of the bottle might, in tasting, be really killed from its action; the ammonia that would be used is, in fact, a poison. A filter would also be necessary, as there are small particles floating about in the fluid that has been strained off the bread, which might be taken for the alumina; or a piece of blotting paper could be placed in a funnel, and the liquor poured through. It is doubtful whether the presence of alum in bread could be detected by soaking a little bread in water, and adding to the liquid so taken the white of an egg, in the mixture of which the alum would turn opaque. The quantity would be too small to make the liquid opaque; and, besides, there is a little opacity produced in mixing the white of egg with water.

ADULTERATION WITH OTHER SUBSTANCES THAN ALUM.

Professor Taylor found salt and phosphate of lime, with a little carbonate of lime. Baking powders are also used, which are compounds of carbonate of soda and tartaric acid. The effect of the constant taking of tartrate of soda will be to act as a gentle laxative; it is a chemical imitation of fermentation. If the baking powder is mixed with flour and kneaded, effervescence succeeds, and extends the dough; but the salt which is formed, the tartrate of soda, remains there; the effect is that there is a gentle action upon the bowels. By microscopic examination, bread has been found adulterated with potato starch and bean starch. Starch granules of the potato have been found in bread. Rice is also used very extensively by cheaper bakers, but the loaf is not so nutritious: the loaf holds more water. A sack of flour, with 40 pounds of rice, will make about 116 quartern loaves; while a sack of pure flour will make only 95. Bread should not contain more than 40 per cent. of water; and if it

contains more than 40 per cent., it becomes liable to decay. Dr. Hassall found copper in bread, but could not say whether it was there as sulphate, or whether it was intentionally introduced.

REMEDIAL MEASURES SUGGESTED.

Several witnesses suggested to subject the bakers to some supervision. Yet it was stated that the Act of George the Fourth, by which alum is prohibited from being mixed with bread, is quite imperative. To enforce that Act takes trouble. The public will never take the matter into their own hands; some Government agent should be appointed for the purpose. Under that Act, bakers have no limit to their ingenuity in mixture, provided they sell their loaf marked with an M, as mixed. In Paris, bakers are under the municipal authorities.

FLOUR.

The London bakers require the flour to produce bread of the following quality: the loaf must be of a white colour, and a good height; the corners free from a doughy skin; the crust not to dye of a brown colour; it must cut with softness, with a plain surface, and no large holes. The reason why there should be no large holes is, that the industrial classes are very particular when they spread their butter it should not slip into holes and consume a large quantity of butter; they like an even surface. To give the above qualities to flour, one part of bean flour is added to 60 parts of wheatmeal. Never more than one part in 40. One in 60 is almost the universal practice. When the wheat is grown and injured in a wet harvest, then is added one part in 40. The beans add to the strength of the flour, containing more gluten than wheat, and cause the dough to bear more fermentation without its becoming sour, therefore giving more of the qualities that the bakers require for bread. If too many are added, a doughy streak makes its appearance a little above the bottom crust of the loaf. They are put in to improve the quality, not to cheapen the price. The use of beans is attended with much trouble; they require to be twice kiln-dried, split, husked, and ground. They produce for human food 65½ per cent.; for food for cattle, 16½, and 18 per cent. waste. Wheat varies very much in the quantity that is produced in the district wherein it may be grown; wheat grown in Huntingdonshire and the Isle of Ely contains 76 per cent. of flour, 20 per cent. of offals for cattle, 1 per cent. of seeds, and about 3 per cent. of waste. White peas improve the appearance of flour, but not the quality, and are put into it to cheapen it, and certainly are very wholesome. Barley is mixed with wheat in some districts to cheapen the price. In other districts wheat is mixed with barley to improve the quality, particularly in Northamptonshire. The poor people consider barley-flour more nutritious than wheat-flour. Bakers use a small portion of potatoes to give softness to the loaf, and to increase its size and moisture.

Dr. C. W. Bingley stated, that in Sheffield flour has been found adulterated with gypsum, and with a portion, in one case, of bone-dust; and Mr. Postgate found at Lincoln plaster of Paris in flour, or terra alba

and sulphate of lime. By the present Act, 6 & 7 William IV., power is given to the inspector of nuisances to examine the flour, and, if found adulterated, seize the whole. But the parties authorized to inspect the mills should be competent and intelligent men. The inspection should be very frequent, and should take place at any hour of the day or night. Much difference of opinion exists as to the expediency and practicability of inspection.

TEA.

It appears from the evidence in regard to tea, that in the years 1847 to 1851, a certain quantity of spurious tea was imported from China; but that the importations were checked and ultimately stopped by its character becoming generally known, and the public refusing to purchase. In 1852, some which had cost the importers 1s. per lb., had to be sold for 6d. and 4d. per lb., and ultimately to be exported, as the public refused to use it.

Tea is usually sold to the public as imported; there is scarcely any adulteration in this country, and tea reaches the consumer in a purer state than most other articles.

Evidence was given as to the facing or colouring of green teas; but this seems to be practised by the Chinese merely for the purpose of producing an article more in demand, both for the English and American markets; but it did not appear that the ingredients employed in thus facing or improving the appearance of green teas were likely to have any prejudicial effect upon the health of the consumer.

In the opinion of Messrs. Weston, Abbess, Locock, Ripley, and Challice, tea is generally sold in this country in a pure state; yet there is a feeling in the manufacturing districts in favour of spurious tea. They will not look at the genuine tea at all; they insist upon having highly-painted tea.

Mr. Wosden gave the following statement on the adulteration in tea, in this country and in China, as prepared by him in 1851; since then, however, there has been a marked improvement, owing to the exposures that have taken place:—

“Common and damaged green tea, and also black tea, is treated in the manner hereafter to be described in the Canton factories, so as to resemble the finest hyson, ouchain, or gunpowder; they are also guilty of making ‘lie tea.’ This is made of a portion of tea-dust (the sweepings of the factories), and not a little dirt, sand, and sometimes spurious leaves, made into a mass with starch and gum, and either granulated or broken into fragments, and bloomed or painted to resemble tea; but all this is done by the dictation or with the knowledge of the British merchant. The Chinese do not impose this rubbish upon him for genuine tea; he knows it is rubbish when he buys it, and he pays only the price for rubbish. Neither is the dealer in this country imposed upon if he knows his trade. If he buys it, he buys it with a guilty knowledge; it is

only the British consumer that is deceived and cheated. He asks the dealer perhaps for green tea, and the dealer gives him what in appearance is green tea, but the dealer knows at the same time that it is a mixture composed of damaged black tea, spurious leaves, sand, dirt, and paint. The Chinese themselves do not drink these spurious imitations, neither does the shopkeeper; on the contrary, he is perfectly aware of the deleterious ingredients employed, and of their injurious effects on the health; but he is induced to make use of the fraud in order to compete successfully. He must, at any rate, appear to be as cheap, and if possible cheaper than his rivals. To the people of this country the importance of the suppression of this nefarious trade is greater than at first sight it appears to be, both on account of health and money. It unfortunately happens that there are no means of arriving at the exact quantity of Canton made green tea imported or consumed; but the most eminent brokers and persons best qualified to form a correct judgment, give it as their opinion that a full half of the annual importation of green tea is Canton made. The total quantity of green tea imported in 1850 was 8,286,532 lbs., and the quantity cleared for consumption was 9,737,555 lbs., and assuming that one half was Canton made, it will give us 4,143,266 as the number of pounds imported, and 4,868,777 consumed. To this we may add the imports and deliveries of scented caper, as the bulk of that tea is even more adulterated than Canton green tea, and of this article in 1850 there were imported 688,000 lbs., and consumed 884,000 lbs.; this will give a total of 4,831,366 lbs. of Canton made tea imported, and 5,752,777 lbs. consumed. At least half of this quantity consists of the spurious descriptions; but the whole of it is sophisticated, and is a fraud on the consumers. The very best of it, that portion which really is tea, is a cheat; it is not the kind it appears to be; it is all highly painted or dyed, and is in most cases the very commonest descriptions made to resemble the better qualities. There is now scarcely any bohea or twankay imported (at least under those names) to what there was formerly. The Canton alchymists, with the assistance of the British merchant, have discovered the art of transmuting these common grades into young hyson, pearl-leaf gunpowder, caper, &c. If we refer to the last year of the East India Company's charter, from 1st May 1833 to 1st May 1834, we find the quantity of bohea sold in England was 6,170,963 lbs., and of twankay 4,339,672 lbs.; in 1850, there were only 24,500 lbs. of bohea and 27,510 lbs. of twankay imported, the quantity of bohea consumed was 145,340 lbs., and of twankay 843,359 lbs. The question naturally arises, what becomes of the difference in quantity between the boheas and the twankays imported now and that which used to be imported in the Company's time? The solution of the question is, that bohea now finds its way here, partly in the shape of congou, but the bulk under the semblance of Canton gunpowder, young hyson, caper, &c.; the twankay is metamorphosed into hyson, imperial and superior Canton gunpowder, or young hyson. The fraud that is perpetrated on the

consumer in the manner before described, is sufficiently reprehensible; but it is only a trifle compared to the injury that is inflicted on him by the use of the spurious kinds. It is bad enough to have the worst tea substituted for the best; but it is still worse to pay for swallowing dirt and rubbish as tea. We are within the mark in stating that half of the Canton made tea is spurious; we have seen that the total quantity consumed in 1850 was 5,752,777 lbs., and taking the half of that quantity as the minimum, we arrive at the fact, that the people of this country pay for, and consume at least 2,876,388 lbs. of this spurious rubbish!! and assuming that it is all sold to the consumer at 4s. per lb. (and much of it is sold at considerably above that price), we find that the people of this country are made to pay the enormous sum of more than 500,000 pounds sterling (!!) for what is intrinsically worthless. The article can be bought in Canton at a few pence per pound, and the greater part of this price is paid for the labour employed to give these otherwise useless materials a marketable appearance. The consumers of this article do worse than throw away this large amount of money; for there can be no question, that as far as their health is concerned, they would be gainers, if they threw the whole annual importation of this rubbish into the sea, instead of allowing it to find its way into their stomachs."

In looking over the sale list published last month it will be found that there is no bohea imported as bohea. The bohea is comprised under green teas. Under the head of gunpowder, there will be found "Fair to good and fine, 1s. 4d. to 4s. per lb." This refers to true green tea. "Canton and twankay kinds, 10d. to 1s. 3d. per lb." That means gunpowder tea made at Canton from twankay; twankay being the lowest kind of green tea. "Woping and bohea kinds, 8d. to 9d. per lb." That means gunpowder made from coloured woping bohea. The same three descriptions, that is, "Fair to good and fine," "Canton and twankay kinds," and "Woping and bohea kinds," are also applied in the brokers' lists to imperial and young hyson. It was stated by a gentleman that there was no bohea or woping sold now; it is not sold as woping and bohea, but it has always been imported since the Company's charter has been done away with as gunpowder, young hyson, and imperial, and in the brokers' price currents each of these three kinds are described as being composed of bohea.

Mr. Postgate found catechu in tea. In the opinion of Mr. Ripley, tea is an article which is free from adulteration. The adulteration did exist previously to the discontinuance of the manufacture of lie tea, which was a mixture of dust; but now it is imported pure. Lie tea was first shipped from China, in 1846. The shipments at first were limited, and did not exceed 5,000 boxes, or about 100,000 lbs; but subsequently, in 1848, as much as 400,000 to 500,000 lbs. may have been exported from China in one season. Lie tea originally realized 1s. a pound, but now it would with difficulty sell at 6d. Lie tea pays a duty as tea. Lie tea may easily be

obtained in Mincing Lane. It is entered as gunpowder tea, or scented caper. There are two kinds of lie tea imported: one is composed of from 20 to 40 per cent. of sand, mixed up with the refuse of the tea-dust; it is worked into a mass with a kind of starch or gum made from rice, and when it is granulated, it is painted to resemble green tea: the second description is that in which there is a portion of good tea mixed with the lie tea. The exposure of the *Lancet* has had a very beneficial effect. This spurious tea is described in the shops of the poorer districts as People's Tea, and Tea for the Million; it is composed of black tea painted. Mr. Divett, M.P., proved that lie tea is still imported. Dr. Hassall purchased lately a sample of gunpowder tea, which contained lie tea. Some alterations are made in this country by turning what is called scented caper into pearl-leaf gunpowder. Various exposures have taken place of the manufacture of tea in this country from time to time. The fabrication was supposed to be from exhausted tea-leaves. All green tea is slightly coloured. There is some difference in the mode of curing the tea. The leaves of green tea are squeezed as soon as gathered, and rolled by the hand in wicker baskets; and when the juice has by this means been expressed, the leaves are placed in moderately warmed iron pans and dried, being exposed to a bright light at the same time. With black tea, on the contrary, the leaves are left in a heap to ferment; and when they have become tough, and somewhat decomposed, they are exposed to excessive heat, and packed whilst yet hot.

The best protection against the adulteration of tea is in the taste of the public. The wholesale dealer, the retailer, and the consumer, can protect themselves against lie tea, and do not require legislative interference. In the opinion of Mr. Wosden, if painted tea was discovered in any shop, it should be made a punishable offence. It is not desirable, nor possible, to prevent the sale of mixed black teas of different qualities. If two congous were mixed together, no one could tell; if congou and bohea were mixed, it could be found out; and if congou and souchong were mixed, it could be detected.

COFFEE.

According to the evidence produced in 1855, coffee was stated by one witness to be, "with scarcely any exceptions, adulterated with chicory and other substances. The analysis was made at the commencement of the investigations published in the *Lancet*, four years ago;" (since which time the Excise have prohibited, under a penalty of 100*l.*, the mixture of chicory with coffee, except sold in labelled packages). "The result of the examination of ten samples purchased since, was that two, labelled 'mixture of chicory and coffee,' were sold as coffee; one was properly sold as a mixture of chicory and coffee, and seven were genuine."

It was further stated by other physicians, that "coffee is very much adulterated, but never found anything injurious. Chicory contains a little

starch, a little gum, a little glucose sugar, a little fat, and is therefore nutritious to a certain extent;" and "has found chicory present in almost all coffee, in various proportions. It has no nutritive qualities."

From the evidence of the chief officer of the Excise analytical department, it appears that of 12,483 samples of coffee, only 12 9-10ths per cent. were adulterated. A mixture of coffee and chicory may be sold, provided it is visibly labelled, "This is a mixture of chicory and coffee;" if these words do not appear clearly on the package, the dealer is proceeded against. Of the 12,483 cases examined, the chief were from the 30th Oct. 1852 to August 1855. From the 30th October 1852 to the 29th October 1853, 5,276 samples were examined; of these, 3,378 were purchased as coffee, 2,890 of this number being genuine, and 488 adulterated. The number of mixtures purchased in that year was 1,898; 904 were properly labelled, 283 not labelled at all, and 19 contained other substances than chicory. From 30th October 1853 to 29th October 1854, 4,624 samples were examined; of these, 3,434 were represented as genuine; and on examination, 2,910 were found to be genuine, and 524 adulterated. Of the mixtures, 1,208 were purchased; 882 were properly labelled, 265 improperly labelled, and 61 not labelled at all; and no other substance than chicory was found in them.

EXTENT OF ADULTERATION WITH CHICORY.

Coffee, with fifty per cent. of chicory in it, is quite exceptional. Up to a recent period, chicory could be almost always detected in the cheap kinds of coffee. Now, when it is mixed with chicory, it is sold as a mixture. Coffee has been adulterated with other vegetable roots dried and ground up. The annual consumption of chicory is about 12,000 tons; and of coffee about 18,000 tons. As to the quantity of chicory which may be used, the maximum admixture of coffee and chicory, suggested by Dr. Carpenter and Professor Taylor, was ten ounces of coffee to four ounces of chicory. In the opinion of Mr. Abyss, from seventy to eighty per cent. of the public prefer an admixture of chicory; the mixture preferred is one-fourth of chicory to three-fourths of coffee. Much advantage results besides to the public, as regards price, quality, and convenience, in the admixture of chicory by the vendor. Coffee is very easily tested, whether it is pure or not. Sprinkle the powder upon a wine-glass-full of cold water: if there is chicory mixed with it, the water is coloured in the course of a minute and a half; but if it is pure coffee, the water has no considerable tinge for four or five minutes. In the opinion of Mr. Wosden, the mixture of chicory with coffee is an adulteration, and it is prejudicial to the fair trader, the consumer, and the revenue. It is injurious to the consumer, as being a fraud on his pocket. A pound of native Ceylon coffee, which is the cheapest kind of coffee, when roasted, costs the grocer 1s.; if he sells that at 1s. 2d., he gets 2d. per pound profit, or 14½ per cent. The mixture usually sold at 1s. per pound

is half chicory and half coffee; the mixture costs the grocer 7*d.*, that is 6*d.* for the half pound of coffee and 1*d.* for the chicory; the grocer would therefore get 5*d.* on every pound, or 41½ per cent., and that would enable him to sell 16 per cent. cheaper than the fair trader, and he would in reality realize 27½ per cent. more profit. The prohibition of the mixture of chicory with coffee is necessary also, in justice to the fair trader, as he cannot compete with other grocers who use the mixture. As to chicory itself there is nothing in it which could affect health. The analysis of a sample of chicory gave these results: solid part, 22 per cent., and liquid or watery part, 78 per cent. The solid part consisted of grape sugar, with a bitter principle, 14·28; insoluble fibre, 5; mineral matter, consisting of carbonate of potash, common salt, phosphate of lime, and silica with a trace of iron, 2·72; so that chicory appears to be a root which contains a quantity of saccharine matter and a bitter principle, and when roasted, that saccharine matter being burnt, like burnt sugar gives a strong colour to any infusion, and the bitter principle at the same time is liked by many persons who thus take it. Up to 10 per cent. it is not very readily discovered by the flavour, but when it goes beyond that it could easily be discovered. It was detected by the microscope and by chemistry in almost any per-centage. Mr. Gray, the superintendent of the mustard department at Deptford, stated that chicory has also been adulterated. When chicory was worth about 30*l.* a ton in the raw state, and 20*l.* duty upon it, then it was more worth the while of manufacturers to adulterate. Now English chicory can be bought for about 10*l.* a ton, there is very little adulteration, with the exception of Venetian red and treacle, and that is done to give it a brighter colour, more than for the purpose of increasing the weight, though it does increase the weight, and is very injurious to the article. In one year, when chicory was worth 21*l.* a ton, 700 tons of carrots were manufactured into chicory. They were grown by one gentleman in Surrey, and supplied to a house, together with 350 tons of parsnips. The parsnips cost 20*s.* a ton, and 20*l.* a ton cutting and drying. When the white carrots were cut up, they looked like chicory. Mr. Postgate suggested to raise a duty on chicory so as to bring it up to the price of coffee. In France and Belgium there is almost universally an admixture of chicory. The practice, however, in France is that the public generally grind the coffee themselves and introduce chicory knowingly.

SUGAR.

Sugar appears, by the evidence of one witness, to be rarely adulterated; two out of 36 samples contained flour, one being tapioca, the other potato flour. Brown sugar contained particles of cane, so minute as only to be discernible by the microscope, and the insects acari were almost invariably present in brown sugar. Of 15 samples of refined sugar, none contained acari or cane; animal matter was observed in 10 cases; sawdust, like fragments of woody fibre, was present in 12 samples.

From the evidence of another witness, it appears that sugar is adulterated with lime; it is sugar refined in this country, and arises from imperfection in the process, not intentional fraud.

Cane sugar is adulterated with starch sugar, and sugar from potatoes; this is not at all injurious, but lessens its sweetening power. A year or two previous, when there were diseased potatoes, tons of sugar were made from them at one establishment in a week; the disease in the potato did not touch the starch.

Sugar is rarely adulterated. In all ordinary brown sugars there are found insects called acari in great quantities—many dozens sometimes in a teaspoonful of sugar. But those sugars which have been subjected to a refining process in this country do not contain them. The cause of their existence is the quantity of albuminous matter contained in the sugar, which is not removed from the sugar because the sugar has not been sufficiently carefully prepared. Grape sugar has also been found in sugar, but that is there from natural causes.

MILK.

Milk appears to be generally diluted with water; but only one well-authenticated case of adulteration by any other substance has come before the Committee, and that instance consisted of a small quantity of chalk being discovered at the bottom of the vessel containing the milk. One other case was mentioned in which a sediment, supposed to be chalk, was also discovered, but in this instance the Committee ascertained that the milk was supplied under contract, at a price quite inconsistent with the supply of genuine milk—viz., 5½d. per barn gallon, delivered in Bermondsey from Essex.

BEER.

In porter and ale there is great adulteration, not by large brewers, but by retail dealers. Quassia, gentian, and other bitter substances, and *cocculus indicus*, are much used. The use of *cocculus indicus* in beer affects the nervous and muscular system. The publicans put in beer water and salt, and then, in consequence of the reduction in strength of the beer, they give it an apparent intoxicating power by these drugs. The bitter of quassia is a rough sort of bitter; gentian and caramel would give more warmth to the bitter, and make it more palatable; grains of paradise and coriander seed, and other materials, are also used. Bottled beer is purer than draught beer. Professor Quekett stated that porter has been adulterated with some mineral substance which could be crystallized, probably sulphate of copper. *Cocculus indicus*, quassia, or gentian, cannot be detected chemically. The adulteration is not advantageous to the publican. Already his profits are very large. Beer is generally sold from

32s. to 34s. a barrel, with five per cent. off on payment; that is 36 gallons; that would be necessarily less than 3d. a pot; if it be 36s. it would only be 1s. a gallon. Therefore the publican's beer costs him very little more than $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. a quart. If, however, to that beer he has added a small quantity of sugar, and allowed it to commence fermentation, it is impossible in drawing the beer to fill the pot full in reality; therefore the publican makes six pots out of five pots; now that of itself yields an enormous profit.

The general effect of adulteration in beer seems to be to produce intoxicating effect. Workmen first coming to London find that the London beer produces intoxication, with furious excitement, which they say they never felt from drinking their home-brewed beer, ale, or country beer.

The great adulteration of beer takes place in the cellar of the publican. A publican on entering business was offered such a receipt as the following for making three barrels of beer out of two:—

“To one barrel of porter eight gallons of water, six pounds of sugar, one pound of gelatine (or patent size will do), a handful of common salt, extract of gentian or quassia to restore it to the original bitter flavour, sulphate of ammonia to bring it back to its colour, half an ounce of sulphate of iron, and if required to taste oldish, an ounce of roach alum.”

In many instances tobacco is used in beer. By these adulterations the publican would save 8s. in 36 gallons, and the articles would cost him 2s. 6d., which will give him an additional profit of 5s. 6d. in every barrel of beer. In comparing different samples of stout, Dr. Hassall found that the stronger porter and stout was obtained from the breweries, the next strongest from the brewers' public-houses or taps, and the weakest of all from the ordinary publicans. Dr. Hassall stated that 22 substances are used in the adulteration of porter and ale. Many of these cannot be detected chemically, but there is good ground for believing that they are employed for the purposes of adulteration. The mode of detecting the presence of *cocculus indicus* in beer is as follows:—

The form of the crystal of *cocculus indicus* is very conclusive as to its presence. The plan of proceeding is to separate everything from the beer but this alkaloid of *cocculus indicus*. This picrotoxine bears the same relation to *cocculus indicus* that quinine does to bark; it is in a very definite form, and after getting it into such a form, you could get it to a liquid condition, and subject it to microscopic examination. It is known that beer ought not to contain anything that will give a crystal anything like the form of that which is found in beer containing *cocculus indicus*. The investigation is a laborious one, and occupies a great deal of time; and therefore, unless there is some definite object in view, it is rarely done.

PORT AND SHERRY WINE.

As to wine, Dr. Challice gave the following evidence:—

“Wine is an absolute necessary for the poor when they are recovering from sickness; they have no means of getting pure wine; the adulteration of it is fearful. I have seen many instances in which, when I have recommended port wine, and it has been procured at public-houses, instead of acting as a wholesome stimulant and a restorative astringent, it has produced pain, acidity, griping, irritation and mischief, instead of good. It is a matter of notoriety, I believe, that a composition is sold as a substitute for port wine.”

The astringency imparted to the liquid is by alum. There is an infusion of logwood and sloe-juice and sugar; it is a chemical combination entirely different from port wine. Port wine is often manufactured out of bad clarets and bad Italian red wines, bought at 7*d.* a gallon, and then, by the addition of a mixture of geropiga, dried extract of elderberry-juice, Lisbon grapes, brown sugar, brandy, bitter almonds, and logwood, a mixture is made up which is called London port. The following is said to be a recipe for making an imitation of good port wine:—

“Good cider, 45 gallons; brandy, six gallons; good port, eight gallons; ripe sloes, two gallons; stew them in two gallons of water, press off the liquor, and add, if the colour is not strong enough, tincture of red sanders; in a few days this wine may be bottled; add to each bottle a teaspoonful of powdered catechu, mixing it, when it will very soon produce a fine crusted appearance. The bottles being packed on their side as usual, soak the ends of the corks in a strong decoction of Brazil-wood with alum, which along with the crust will give it the appearance of age.”

This quality of wine may be sold perhaps at 18*s.* a dozen. These imitation port wines may be bought at any grocer's shop who sells British wines. Sherry wine is manufactured out of brandy with water, and flavoured with some bitter almonds.

SPIRITS—GIN AND BRANDY.

Gin appears to be generally diluted for the purpose of lowering the price, and various decoctions are subsequently introduced to supply the peculiar properties supposed to belong to the pure spirit. Many of these articles, however, although “possessing very terrifying names, as oil of vitriol, or sulphuric acid, cannot, in the proportions in which they are used, be looked upon as poisons.” It is, for instance, believed that pure gin—that is, alcohol flavoured with juniper berry—is not to be met with, inasmuch as all rectifiers appear to use “gin flavourings,” made from various aromatic and carminative substances, such as orange peel, coriander, &c., which please the palate of the consumer better than pure gin, of which indeed the public scarcely know the taste. If a retailer “never sold

anything but absolute alcohol, it could not be drunk by the public without their being greatly injured. The publican would then have to dilute it with such a quantity of water as would render it suitable as a beverage." The publican does not profess to sell absolute alcohol, and the public, knowing nothing of the manufacture of gin, are content with what is usually sold under that denomination: the term gin being merely conventional, and applying equally to the mixture sold by the publican as to the spirit sent out by the distiller, and is in fact more generally understood to represent the mixture. For the same reason the revenue does not sustain loss, because no man could drink proof spirits, and if the publican did not dilute the spirit, he "must fall back upon the wholesale dealer and have it made up to the strength he requires, sweetened and all."

As respects brandy, no evidence of adulteration was adduced before your Committee; two witnesses alluded to the substitution of British for foreign brandy.

As to rum, one witness only stated that he had, upon analysis, discovered, in addition to water, a residuary extract of cayenne pepper, which had probably been added in the shape of tincture of capsicum.

DRUGS.

Dr. Hassall gave the following evidence on the adulteration of drugs. Liquorice is adulterated with various kinds of starch or flour, rice, wheat, gum, and chalk. Genuine extract of liquorice dissolves without leaving any residue, from 18 to 42 per cent. Of 28 samples of powdered liquorice subjected to examination, at least 11 were adulterated as follows:—One consisted chiefly of wheat-flour; one contained a large quantity of wheat-flour; two, much foreign woody fibre; two, woody fibre and turmeric; another, woody fibre and wheat-flour; one was made up chiefly of Indian corn, potato, and sago flours, and turmeric; another of sago, woody fibre, and much turmeric; another of damaged East Indian arrowroot, and a little turmeric; and another consisted almost entirely of potato-flour, a little wheat-flour, and turmeric. The last preparation of liquorice examined was the extract of the pharmacopoeia. In order to ensure a genuine article, a form is prescribed for the preparation of this extract; of 10 samples, six were found to be adulterated, and to consist merely of the foreign extract melted down; 14 of the foreign roll liquorices, as well as several of the liquorices sold as the pharmacopoeial extract, contained copper, derived from the vessels in which the extract was prepared. It thus appears that liquorice is adulterated to an enormous extent. It should be remembered that powdered liquorice is prepared by the drug-grinders, and that it is furnished to the chemist and medical man by the wholesale druggist; its adulteration therefore lies mainly between those two parties.

Another drug which is found sometimes to be adulterated, is powdered

rhubarb; samples of powdered rhubarb have been met with adulterated with turmeric, and there are some samples which contain a considerable quantity of wheat-flour; powdered squills were found to be adulterated with wheat-flour. Other drugs which are adulterated, are colocynth, compound scammony powder, and aromatic confection; powdered colocynth frequently contains large quantities of the seeds of colocynth, and those ought never to be present; in the directions given for preparing powdered colocynth, it is expressly stated that the seeds should be removed; wheat-flour has been met with both in the powder and in the extract of colocynth, and in the latter chalk. Colocynth is one of the most valuable purgative medicines contained in the pharmacopœia, and its adulteration therefore is a matter of considerable importance. Another most important medicine is the compound scammony powder; this consists of three ingredients, namely, scammony, hard extract of jalap, and ginger; now two of these ingredients are very liable to adulteration, namely, the scammony and the powdered ginger, while the powder of jalap is very frequently substituted for the extract, although it is not more than about one-fourth of the strength of the extract. Of 10 samples of powdered scammony, chalk, in greater or less proportions, is in all; wheat-flour in three, and powdered jalap in three. Aromatic confection, a very valuable remedy in the treatment of diarrhoea, should consist of cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, cardamoms, saffron, prepared chalk, and sugar, and it is consequently a somewhat expensive preparation. The more expensive ingredients are frequently omitted, and others sometimes substituted, as turmeric in place of the saffron, essence of cassia for the cinnamon, and chalk for part of the sugar. It would be by no means difficult to multiply examples of adulteration in drugs, were it either desirable or necessary; but enough has been stated, not only on this occasion, but in the evidence of many witnesses who have been before this Committee, to show that medicines are frequently adulterated to a very large and serious extent. Dr. Hassall brought samples of adulterated jalap, rhubarb, ipecacuanha, squills, opium, scammony, colocynth, liquorice, turmeric, and aromatic confection. Medicines give rise to different actions and effects, according to the doses in which they are administered. To determine the exact doses of different remedies, and their corresponding actions and effects, has for years past been made the subject of careful observation and experiment by physiologists and others. To adulterate medicines is almost to destroy the value of such labours and inquiries; it is to introduce into the practice of medicine the greatest uncertainty and confusion; it is in many cases to defeat the wisest and best-directed efforts of the physician. Medicines are the chief agents employed in the treatment of disease; how all-important it is, therefore, that these agents should be pure and genuine. So long as the adulteration of drugs is permitted to continue, it is hopeless to expect that any great progress should be made in practical medicine. Disease is surely complicated enough, and difficult enough to cure, without

the complication and the difficulty being enhanced by the practice of adulteration.

In the case of certain drugs, the adulteration takes place previous to importation, mainly; in the case of scammony, for example, the adulteration is practised abroad mainly; in the case of other articles, the adulteration takes place at home, frequently by the drug-grinders; and in some instances we must come to the conclusion that either the wholesale or retail chemist or druggist is a party to the practice. More generally the drug-grinder is at fault.

Turmeric, which is employed in the adulteration of powders and liquorice, is itself adulterated. One sample contained as much as 20 per cent. of yellow ochre. Turmeric frequently contains a considerable quantity of alkali, which is added to it for the purpose of increasing the colour of the powder.

Evidence was given to the effect that wholesale druggists generally keep a book which contains various recipes for the manufacture and composition of spurious articles, particularly of what are called compound powders. The work is Gray's "Supplement to the Pharmacopœia." In the opinion of Dr. Challice, in medical preparations, cheap drugs of the same class are frequently substituted for expensive ones. There are three causes of impurity in medicines: first, a fraud by the intentional substitution of one thing for another, or the mixture of one substance with another; second, the sale of articles which are injured by keeping, which is an act of carelessness as much as anything else; thirdly, the want of skill in the manufacture of an article. There are many extracts which may be quite genuine, but very inferior in quality to other extracts, simply because the maker was not sufficiently acquainted with certain parts of the manipulation, or was not sufficiently careful to attend to the quality rather than the quantity of the product. By boiling a root a great deal, and then taking it out and bruising it and boiling it again, and various other modes, a large product may be obtained which is quite genuine, but not so good as that which is obtained by a very careful process by only one maceration, or just so much as to take out the active principle, without taking the albuminous portions, or the starch and the fibre of the root, which would diminish the strength of the extract.

Whilst many unqualified evidences were given of adulterations in many drugs, not a few witnesses stated that, in the majority of cases, impurities are accidental rather than fraudulent; that the practice of the trade is to sell pure articles; and that there is less adulteration now than was formerly the case.

CONFECTIONERY.

Extensive and ingenious use is made of Scheele's green in coloured confectionery. The blue colour used for confectionery, besides Prussian blue, has been chiefly ultramarine; but Prussian blue is not a poison.

Occasionally, vermilion and red lead are used for colouring confectionery; both of those are noxious. With regard to yellows, oxide of lead and chromate of lead have been found. Orpiment, used for colouring the outside of some sweetmeat of a bright golden yellow colour, led to the death of a child in 1853. Carraway comfits are very extensively adulterated, and also many of the peppermint lozenges. The basis of both those, and coriander and almond comfits, is flour; after the seeds are put into the pan a little syrup is thrown over them, and that is dusted over with either flour or whitening, or plaster of Paris; a pretty strong coat is put upon them in this way, and then they are finished with a stronger and better syrup. The colouring matter is sometimes red lead or vermilion, lake liquor, cochineal, gamboge, and chrome yellow.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

SULPHATE OF COPPER has been sometimes found to contain 50 per cent. of sulphate of iron.

ESSENTIAL OILS are adulterated with turpentine and other volatile and fixed oils.

MUSK is adulterated both at home and abroad. Abroad with lead, dried blood, and other substances; and at home, with mahogany dust. The hairs from the tail of a horse are cut into pieces, so as to represent the hair which covers the pod from which it is obtained.

SWEET SPIRITS OF NITRE is adulterated with alcohol and water.

WHITE PRECIPITATE is not only largely adulterated, but sometimes is absolutely found containing no white precipitate whatever. That is effected by mixing corrosive sublimate with chalk, or some other substance of an inert kind; the corrosive sublimate is to produce the corrosive effect, and the chalk is the mere material to contain it.

RED PRECIPITATE is adulterated with red lead as much as one-third.

SAFFRON is adulterated with safflower, an article used by dyers, and which is a much cheaper article.

WAX is adulterated with spermaceti, or with some cheaper kind of fat.

CREOSOTE with carbonic acid. It is used in cases of toothache, and frequently for internal administration.

HONEY is adulterated with flour and sugar, or syrup which is a solution of sugar and water.

COMPOUND POWDERS are constantly adulterated, especially aniseed, carraway seed, fenugreek seeds, liquorice, gentian, turmeric, and staveracre. The following is a recipe for making compound gentian powder:—True gentian, 1 lb.; linseed, 5 lbs.; flour, 2 lbs.; Cape aloes to give the bitterness, a sufficient quantity. So there are 7 lbs. or 8 lbs. materials, having only 1 lb. of the genuine article in it. *Pulvis compositus* is a conventional term between the retail and the wholesale druggist, in order to avoid the disagreeableness of talking about adulterated articles. Turmeric contains 1 lb. true turmeric, 1 lb. common ochre, 2 lbs. flour.

ESSENTIAL OIL OF ALMONDS contains from six to twelve per cent. of prussic acid, and often leads to fatal results. Many suicides and accidents have occurred from the incautious sale of oil of almond.

ANCHOVIES.—Till lately large quantities of oxide of iron were used for imparting a red colour to anchovies. Anchovy sauce is frequently a fictitious article.

ANNATH was also stated to be adulterated with turmeric and red lead, but it was questioned by other witnesses.

ARROWROOT is constantly adulterated with potato starch, frequently to the extent of fifty per cent., whereby its value is greatly reduced.

BUTTER is adulterated with foreign ingredients, with water, with inferior kinds of butter, and with lard.

CALOMELA has been found adulterated with a considerable portion of alumina, a very fine kind of pipeclay.

CANDLES are sold as sperm and wax which are not so. Stearic acid is used; but with a view to give them the appearance of wax, they are coloured with yellow colouring matter.

CHLOROFORM is often impure. The following are the requisites of pure chloroform:—Chloroform should have a specific gravity, according to Liebig, of 1·480, but is now almost constantly produced by Soubeiran at 1·496; Dr. Simpson says 1·500. It is in such great demand that it is empirically manufactured by persons that know nothing of its composition, and it is rare to find a sample absolutely pure. There has been found, in different specimens, alcohol, chlorine, hydrochloric acid, hydrochloric ether, and compounds of methyle, besides water and fixed substances. Chloroform may be good that has a specific gravity of 1·480, if it will stand the following tests, but it is better to have it of a higher specific gravity. It ought to evaporate entirely on the hand without leaving any odour; it ought to give no reaction with neutral litmus paper, or nitrate of silver; put into a graduated tube, then shaken with twice its bulk of distilled water, and allowed to stand two or three hours, it ought not to diminish sensibly in bulk; but when put into a tube, in contact with concentrated sulphuric acid, the acid ought not to become blackened. If chloroform will stand these tests, all easy of practice, the medical man may safely rely on it. It should be kept in a well-stopped bottle in a darkened cupboard. The light causes it to decompose; and putting the samples through these tests, none of them would stand them.

CINNAMON.—Cassia in the stick is sometimes sold for cinnamon in the stick.

COCOA is adulterated with sugar and various kinds of starch.

COD LIVER OIL is constantly adulterated with other fish oils.

CREAM.—Flower and annath are mixed with cream, but these are not injurious to health.

CREAM OF TARTAR is mixed with three parts in four of alum, and is sold at the price of the best commodity.

HYDROCHLORIC ACID.—A sample of it sent to Mary's Hospital contained four or five grains of arsenous acid.

JALAP is often decomposed rather than adulterated.

LARD is adulterated with mutton suet, alum, and potash.

MEAT.—Diseased and unhealthy meat is constantly sold to the poorer classes. Such meat is productive of many diseases, such as diarrhoea and many scorbutic complaints. There is one class of disease called the ticked animal that is supposed to be contagious. The law in force to put down dealing with bad meat is vague and unsatisfactory.

OATMEAL is often adulterated with the sharps taken out of flour.

WHITE PEPPER sometimes contains bone or ivory dust.

PICKLES are also adulterated. Copper has been found in pickles.

RHUBARB is largely cultivated in this country. English Rhubarb was first grown in 1789, when it was introduced by Mr. Hassard of Banbury. It has been extensively used as a medicine since 1811, when the plants were brought by Mr. Peter Usher. The culture is rather expensive. English Rhubarb is a valuable medicament, and is not much inferior to foreign Rhubarb.

SAUSAGES.—In Newton there are five knackers' yards, and in Manchester one, where they mix the best portions of the horse-flesh with potted meat. The tongues of horses particularly, and the best portions, such as the hind-quarters of horses, are generally sold to mix with collared brawn or pig's head, and for sausages and polonies.

No. LIII.—SPIRITS (IRELAND.)

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 5th March, 1856, for

Returns of the number of gallons of Proof Spirits on which Duty was paid for Home Consumption in Ireland, in each of the years 1853, 1854, and 1855; of the number of Detections, of persons prosecuted, of persons convicted, and of persons confined, for offences in Ireland against the Laws for the Suppression of Illicit Distillation during the same period. (Sir Robert Ferguson.) (236.)

THE number of gallons of proof spirits on which duty was paid for home consumption in Ireland in 1853, was 8,136,362; in 1854, 8,440,734; and in 1855, 6,228,856 gallons.

The number of detections for offences against the Laws on Illicit Distillation, in 1853, 2,740; in 1854, 1,974; and in 1855, 2,214. The number of persons prosecuted in 1853, 527; 1854, 381; and in 1855, 597. Number of persons convicted in 1853, 436; 1854, 300; and in 1855, 464. The number of persons confined in the several gaols in 1853, 293; 1854, 186; and 1855, 236. Sligo, Omagh, Castlebar, Cavan, and Lifford, are the gaols where most persons are confined for this offence.

No. LIV.—LEGACY, &c., DUTIES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 10th July, 1856, for Return of Capital on which Legacy Duty has been paid, and Amount of Revenue received in the United Kingdom, for Stamp Duty on Legacies, &c. in the years 1854 and 1855; and the amount of Duty received since 1797. (Mr. William Williams.) (417.)

THE capital on which the several rates of legacy duty have been paid in Great Britain was 62,601,238*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*, against 55,091,434*l.* 2*s.* 10*d.* in 1854. The amount of duty paid in 1855 was 1,586,831*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*, against 1,458,211*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* in 1854. The total amount of capital on which duty was paid since 1797 was 1,821,684,541*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.*, and the duty paid 51,728,945*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* The amount of capital on which the several rates of legacy duty has been paid in Ireland in 1855 was 3,309,829*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.*, against 3,282,727*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* in 1854; and the amount of duty 77,173*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.*, against 71,073*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.* in 1854. The amount of duty on probates and letters of administration in Ireland in 1855 was, 83,941*l.* 10*s.*, against 72,175*l.* 10*s.* in 1854.

The total amount of revenue received in the United Kingdom in 1854 and 1855 for stamp duties on legacies, probates, administrations, and testamentary inventories was as follows:—

Years.		ENGLAND AND WALES.	SCOTLAND.	IRELAND.	UNITED KINGDOM.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1854	Legacies . .	1,321,915 13 5	133,180 18 10	71,073 16 1	1,526,170 8 4
	Probates, Ad- ministrations and Testa- mentary In- ventories .	1,006,410 0 0	98,326 0 0	72,175 10 0	1,176,911 10 0
1855	Legacies . .	1,434,527 8 3	129,877 19 0	77,173 8 8	1,641,578 15 11
	Probates, Ad- ministrations and Testa- mentary In- ventories .	1,095,361 18 0	88,931 0 0	83,941 10 0	1,268,234 8 0

TOTAL DUTY RECEIVED SINCE 1797.

	LEGACIES.	PROBATES, ADMINISTRATIONS, AND TESTAMENTARY INVENTORIES.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
England	48,719,548 9 10	38,774,630 7 8
Scotland	3,221,748 7 4	2,309,273 0 2
Ireland	1,493,157 17 4	1,919,714 8 10
	£53,434,454 14 6	£43,003,617 16 8

No. LV.—REPORT ON SOUND DUES.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the operation of the Sound Dues, and to consider in what degree they are detrimental to the Commerce of the Country.

THE Committee consisted of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Villiers, Mr. Newdegate, Mr. Cardwell, Lord Stanley, Mr. Mitchell, Viscount Chelsea, Mr. Milner Gibson, Mr. Bramley Moore, Mr. Hutt, Mr. Robert Phillimore, Mr. Deasy, and Mr. Duncan.

The Report of the Committee is as follows :—

Your Committee have considered the matters referred to them, and have to report, that they have examined witnesses from different parts of the country, including merchants, manufacturers, shipowners, and others interested in the Baltic trade (as well as the British Minister at Copenhagen), and have found a very general concurrence of opinion among them as to the effect and operation of the Sound Dues.

Your Committee did not consider it within their province to inquire into the right exercised by the Crown of Denmark to levy tolls on ships and merchandise passing between the German Ocean and the Baltic Sea.

It is matter of history that this country has acquiesced in the payment of these Dues for some centuries past, and that at this time they are paid and regulated under engagement by treaty made between the two countries for that purpose.

In the year 1840, and several previous years, complaints having been urged by the trade upon the Government of the injurious operation of these Dues, a revision of the tariff took place, and in 1841 the treaty (now in operation), purporting to give effect to the new regulation, was concluded in London.

The dues which are now imposed consist of a fixed duty levied uniformly upon all ships above 40 tons, and a smaller duty upon vessels of less tonnage, the proceeds of which are said to be applied to the maintenance of lights, buoys, and beacons; and also of duties on cargoes levied specifically on certain goods which are enumerated, and on all goods unenumerated, at the rate of one per cent. *ad valorem*, the amount of which is avowedly for the purpose of Danish revenue.

The mischief and inconvenience attending upon the payment of these Dues appeared a matter of great complaint among all persons engaged in this branch of our trade. This seems to arise partly from the rate at which they are levied, but mainly from the manner in which they are collected.

The detention of vessels, rendered necessary by the collection of Sound Dues at Elsinore, appears to be a fertile source of mischief and needless expense, which is not adequately measured by the payments actually made to the Danish Government. Competent persons, such as shipowners, and those who have commanded vessels in the trade, have stated to your Committee that the loss of time consequent upon this circumstance may be

estimated on an average to amount to one day in a voyage; for though it would be possible to comply with all the requirements connected with this impost in a few hours, yet owing sometimes to the loss of a favourable wind, or to the circumstance of a number of ships arriving at the same time, or to the arrival at a time when the Custom-house authorities were not bound to attend, or to the inducements which present themselves to the captains and crews when on shore to remain longer than they need, vessels are said to be detained occasionally for periods varying in time from one day to three months; instances having been mentioned where, owing to this delay, at an advanced period of the season, vessels have been unable to quit the Baltic, and have remained in that sea during the winter. The risks of such prolonged detention apply less to steamers than to sailing vessels; but, on the other hand, the cost of detention is greater in the case of steamers.

The system under which vessels are cleared at Elsinore, by the agency of persons who derive their profit entirely from that business, has been shown to your Committee to be attended with great expense and inconvenience.

The captains and masters of vessels are bound to go on shore, which they do either in their own boats with the crew of the ship, or in boats which go out to them, and which are paid according to a tariff, the charge varying with the state of the weather, and amounting occasionally to 5*l*. and upwards; the latter mode, however, being preferred, in order to avoid the consequences of the crew going on shore. The captain is here met by agents, of whom there are about fifty at Elsinore, whose profits are stated by some of the witnesses to be very considerable. They undertake the clearance of the vessel, paying all the dues demanded at the Custom-houses, on which they charge a commission of three per cent., and draw a bill on the merchant for the whole amount.

It is a matter of much complaint that these charges, which are only incidental to the payment exacted by the Danish Government, amount to more than the dues themselves, in some cases being double the amount; and an agent's account was submitted to the Committee, showing that the Dues properly so called amounted to one-fourth only of the whole charges for which the owner of the cargo was made liable; these are composed of various items, such as commission, expedition, translation, stamped paper, &c.; and though some of these charges are sanctioned by treaty, the account when delivered is seldom examined, and if questioned, redress is difficult to obtain.

Mr. Wilson, of Hull, says, "We have to take the account of our agents, and I do not see that we can check them; we should always be in a correspondence with them if we did; we are completely in their hands;" and witnesses admitting the correctness of the return that has been made by the Danish Government in the amount alleged to be paid by this country, namely, 70,000*l*. per annum, place the burden falling on British commerce at not less than between 200,000*l*. and 300,000*l*.

The loss from these superfluous charges is aggravated by the risk

incurred by the captains delaying to return to their ships; many of them receive gratuities from the agents, either, as it is said, to disclose the full value of their cargoes, or as an inducement to employ the same agent again; and they are induced to lay out their money in the port, and are exposed to the temptations afforded by cheap intoxicating liquors. Great complaints have also been made of the temptations held out by the agents at Elsinore to captains to purchase stores unnecessarily.

Mr. Fleming, of Dundee, has given, in the following passage, a summary of the mischiefs which follow from the stoppage at Elsinore:—

“ The delays ships meet with at Elsinore from having to remain for their necessary papers from the Custom-house is often the cause of many disasters. In fine weather the master may be on shore for two or three hours only, but if the weather is not fine he may be absent five hours, and occasionally much longer. The roadstead in spring and autumn is very exposed and unsafe anchorage, and frequently serious accidents occur, such as collision, slipping chains, parting from anchors, driving on shore; and sometimes ships are lost, and the crews drowned. A vessel arriving late in the afternoon must come to anchor, and by the time the captain gets his clearance business finished, and returns on board and gets under weigh again, it is scarcely possible to proceed through the Grounds (channel) with daylight that day, and the attempt to proceed through that dangerous channel during the night very often terminates in the vessel getting ashore; and if assistance be required to get the ship off, a heavy expense is incurred to the owners and merchants. It often happens that during the time occupied in attending to the clearance business a change of wind occurs; and from the peculiar nature of the channel the direction or course desired to be steered, change of currents, &c., vessels may be delayed for a number of days; whereas if they could have proceeded without having to stop, the voyage might have been accomplished instead of being at anchor. When the captain goes on shore at Elsinore he gives his papers to the agent, who does the Custom-house business. There are many agents, and the captain employs whom he thinks proper, unless otherwise ordered by the owner, or unless the charterer binds him to clear with a particular agent. Each voyage a gratuity of 20s. to 30s. is allowed by the Elsinore agent to the owner, charterer, or captain, according to arrangement; the captain is also allowed half-a-dozen of wine, or equivalent in money or tea, and if a new ship, a china punch bowl. The captain may go on shore with his own boat in fine weather, but in bad weather it is necessary to employ a shore boat, the charge for which varies according to the state of the weather from one to three guineas, and even as high as five guineas. There is another circumstance which renders it almost indispensable to employ shore boats, namely, the risk of the ship's boat's crew, in the absence of the master attending to the clearance business, getting intoxicated. The men have many opportunities while on shore of obtaining spirits, and it is more prudent to keep the crew on board. There is also another class of boats,

called bumboats, which come off from the shore for the purpose of buying old ropes, bones, or anything else on board of the ship, and instances have occurred of part of the cargoes having been sold; besides, the same boats take off spirits, tobacco, &c., which are more readily sold when the captain is absent. Each agent in Elsinore keeps a general store for supplying the ships clearing with him, but the prices are usually about 10 per cent. higher than those current at the shops. In settling the amount of clearing dues and cost of supplies, the captain gives his draft or bill on the owner, at one to three months' date, which bill is transmitted by the Elsinore agent to his correspondent in this country, who collects the money, and for which a commission, varying from two to five per cent., is received by the latter. Should a ship clear on a Sunday, an additional charge of 5s. is made, and when a ship passes downwards without stopping for clearance, a fine is paid, as already mentioned. Perhaps I may be allowed to refer to two letters which have been addressed to the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of Dundee, confirming the statement which I have just made."

Upon reference to other evidence, it will be seen that strong and unvarying testimony is borne to the mischief arising out of the detention of vessels at Elsinore, and indeed some of the witnesses connected with the shipping interest state that the evil of the detention is greater than the evil of the payment. It would be difficult to suggest any relief to the trade for this evil, short of rendering it unnecessary for vessels to stop for the purpose of paying these dues in future.

The apparently arbitrary rates at which these duties are fixed is also the subject of complaint.

The duties leviable on the articles enumerated in the tariff do not appear to have been adjusted in 1841 to the value of the goods at that period, although it is alleged that in 1645 the duties were regulated according to their value; the great difference which has taken place of late years in the cost of their production must leave the rates now without any certain relation to the real value.

It is indeed a question raised by Denmark, whether, by the treaty of Christianople (1645) or any subsequent treaty, it was ever intended that the duty on the enumerated articles should be charged *ad valorem*, and practically at present there is no guide but the tariff for determining the amount of duty. It appears, however, that all the unenumerated articles were intended to be rated upon that principle; and upon the general belief that the dues on these goods ought to be one per cent. only, there is much complaint that, in fact, the duties are much higher, rated even according to their value in 1841. It is but just also to state, that it has been shown that in the case of some goods exported from the Baltic the rate is less than one per cent.

There can be no doubt, however, that on many important articles, whether named in the tariff or not, the duty levied is actually much higher than one per cent. Mr. Bowring, Registrar of the Board of Trade, says,

" I have a list of articles here upon which the duty is more than one per cent.; they are sugar, coffee, sulphur, spices, salt, cotton, iron, rice, saltpetre, wine, shumac; all of which are chiefly imported into the Baltic."

Mr. Higgen, of Liverpool, salt-manufacturer, who exports largely of salt to the Baltic, says that the duty now levied upon that article, according to its present value, is 12 per cent., and the trade is more limited than it would be in consequence; and he considers that not less than 6,000*l.* a year is paid for dues on English salt to the Danish Government. Mr. Stephen West, an importer of wood, says, " We are at this moment importing deals from Russia which will cost us 5*l.*, and probably in the same ship we shall have others that will cost us 10*l.*, but the same charge is made upon us for Sound Dues." And he further alleges that the dues payable on deals from Russia are only 1*s.* 9*d.* per hundred, whilst those from Prussia pay 2*s.* 3*d.* Mr. Pearson, of Hull, says, that indigo pays at the rate of 10*s.* to 12*s.* a chest, while the whole freight upon that to St. Petersburg is only 8*s.*, so that the duty is 2*s.* more than the actual freight, and that upon worsted yarn it is nearly 1*d.* a pound, the freight being about 6*d.* a foot, equivalent to 20*s.* a ton, while at 1*d.* a pound the Sound Dues will amount to 9*l.* 10*s.* a ton.

The Sound Dues, therefore, as they are levied at present, combine in them what is most objectionable in taxes that fall upon trade; they are unequal in their operation, and they occasion great loss of time, and much needless expenditure in the collection of a comparatively small revenue, and, as far as the cargoes are concerned, without professing to be raised for any service rendered in return, tend to impede and burden an important branch of trade.

Under these circumstances, your Committee have no hesitation in declaring that these dues are the cause of annoyance and injury to British commerce, and that they deem it therefore highly desirable that they should be abolished.

Your Committee are the more induced to form this opinion by the circumstance that Denmark, from her geographical position, appears to possess a territorial monopoly in all the practicable routes that could be substituted in passing from the German Ocean to the Baltic Sea, by which the payment of these dues could be avoided; and while she continues to levy tolls on the passage of the Sound she can always protect this source of her revenue by imposing countervailing duties on the transit by land through her territory.

It appears to this Committee that Denmark has already manifested her intention to act upon this policy, seeking to confine the trade to its ancient course by sea, for, simultaneously with any railway communication being opened through her territory, transit dues have been imposed, which, from their amount, practically operate as a protection of the Sound revenue.

Mr. Buchanan, the British Minister at Copenhagen, has stated that it was notorious in that country, and that he had no doubt of it himself, that this

was the object of the duties which have been imposed on goods passing on the railway between Hamburg and Lubeck, and he feels equally confident that upon the abolition of the Sound Dues they would at once be greatly reduced. Other witnesses have expressed their opinion, that, but for the transit dues, a much more extended use would be made of this railway, especially at seasons of the year when relief from the risks of sea would compensate the merchant for any loss or inconvenience occurring from the transhipment of goods.

It has been given in evidence that a railway lately has been completed between Tonningen and Flensburg, which passes through Danish territory, and which purports to convey goods clear of the Sound Dues; but the Committee have not been informed of the extent to which they have been already made subject to transit dues.

Your Committee would strongly recommend that in any negotiation that may take place for the abolition of the Sound Dues, the fullest consideration should be given to the means of securing a like freedom for trade in the transit through any part of the Danish territory.

By means of documents that have been directed to be laid before this Committee, as well as by statements made by Mr. Buchanan on the subject, your Committee have become informed of the proposal that has lately been submitted by the Government of Denmark to the Government of her Majesty, as well as to other foreign states, with a view to the abolition of the Sound Dues, and they have heard from some of the witnesses opinions as to the justice and practicability of the plan. Other measures have also been brought under the consideration of the Committee, having likewise in view to remove or mitigate the evils connected with these dues of which the trade so earnestly complain.

Your Committee does not feel in a position to pronounce any confident opinion upon the respective merits of these propositions, but they deem it important to notice, that in all of the plans, whether the one which has been made by the Danish Government, or those which have either originated in other countries, or been suggested by individuals in this country, there seems to be no difference of opinion as to the data on which the calculation for a just settlement of this question should proceed; namely, the payments annually made to the Crown of Denmark on account of Sound Dues; neither does it appear that the accuracy of the returns to this effect, which are exclusively derived from Danish authority, is seriously called in question.

Mr. Buchanan says that their accuracy was not doubted at the Congress assembled at Copenhagen to consider the subject, and that he is satisfied, from the freedom and absence of reserve with which access to the entries at the Custom-house was offered to himself, as also from the coincidence with the financial accounts presented to the Danish Legislature, that there is no reasonable ground for mistrust.

Doubts have been expressed to this Committee by some witnesses,

whether, in case of compliance with the proposition of Denmark, namely, to receive at once a sum representing the capital value of the payments annually made on account of Sound dues, any guarantee would remain for the maintenance of lights and buoys, so essential for the safety of navigation in that sea; and whether on this account it would be expedient that any pecuniary indemnity should consist of annual payments remitted by this Government to the Government of Denmark. It is difficult, however, to express any opinion upon this matter, without previously knowing what other arrangements Denmark might propose to make for this purpose.

The question on which there appears to be some real difference of opinion is, as to the mode of providing in this country for the payment of the sum required for the redemption of these dues, should that course be determined upon; whether the burden should be borne exclusively by the merchants and shipowners engaged in the Baltic trade, or whether by the country at large. The view taken by some of the most intelligent witnesses, that the chief exports from the Baltic being of general consumption in this country, the duties on them (though borne at first by an especial branch of trade) enter into the cost of the article, and fall ultimately on the general consumer, appears to be well founded, and so far to warrant the opinion that compensation in this case might properly be charged on the general resources of the country. The Committee, however, have observed that among those whose interests would be affected by it, no strong objection has been expressed to the charge being cast on the particular trade, and the reason assigned against this plan has been less on the ground of injustice than that of the difficulty and inconvenience that would be found in giving it effect.

There can be little doubt that the trade would, in consideration of being relieved from the burden and inconvenience connected with the present payment of these dues, gladly agree to substitute in their place a direct payment either to this Government or to that of Denmark, equal in amount to that which can now be legally claimed of them; but it is manifest that great practical difficulties would arise in giving effect to a system of differential duties imposed upon produce imported into the United Kingdom from the Baltic which would be thus rendered necessary.

On these points, however, the Committee forbear to express any opinion. It will be for the House to decide on the means that may be proposed by the Government of this country for carrying into effect any arrangement with the Crown of Denmark for the abolition of the Sound Dues.

Your Committee deem it, however, their duty to observe that the longer the settlement of this question is delayed, the larger will probably be the receipts by Denmark for which compensation will be demanded; and they have further to remark that the course recently taken by the Government of the United States has created a state of things which demands from this country a speedy and practical solution. Your Committee have learnt from Mr. Buchanan that the Government of the United States have announced

their intention of discontinuing the payment of the Sound Dues, after the expiration of a year, dating from the month of June last, and that a specific offer of compensation has been made by that Government to the Crown of Denmark, calculated on the same proportion to their previous payments as the proposal which has been made by Denmark to this country, and which it is understood the Danish Government are ready to accept. If an exemption from the Sound Dues could be granted by Denmark to one nation, it would give to that nation an undue advantage in the carriage of the trade with the Baltic. Your Committee therefore think that the proposals made by the Danish Government to the Governments of the different States interested in the navigation and trade of the Baltic, amongst which Great Britain holds the first place, should receive immediate consideration, and become the foundation of a final and satisfactory settlement of the question.

22nd July, 1856.

The witnesses examined were Messrs. Edgar Alfred Bowring, Registrar of the Board of Trade; Z. C. Pearson, merchant, Hull; Richard Park, underwriter, Hull; Thomas R. Arnott, merchant, Liverpool; Thomas Higgins, salt manufacturer, Liverpool; Christian Alhusen, merchant, Newcastle; John Ormston and M. Havelock, merchants, Newcastle; Frederick Boldemann, merchant, London; Stephen West, timber merchant, Hull; M. F. Bremer, ship broker, London; Ant. G. Robinson, shipowner, London; John Timperley, Russian merchant; Robert Fleming, merchant, Dundee; William Johnson, corn factor, London; Charles Alcock, shipowner, Sunderland; George W. Hudson, shipowner, Sunderland; Thomas Wilson, merchant, Hull; Andrew Buchanan, British Minister at Copenhagen; Joseph Berridge, late resident at Elsinore; and T. M. Weguelin, Russian merchant, London.

Mr. Bowring gave information respecting the existence and origin of the Sound Dues, and the obligation which this country is under for the payment of them. The Sound Dues have existed for more than 500 years. There are documents now existing which prove that they were levied at a remote period by the Danes, who were then proprietors of both sides of the channel, and who therefore had no difficulty in levying them, either by the law of might, or by what was then thought the law of right.

Subsequently there have been treaties with different states upon the subject. The first treaty in which the right of Denmark to levy these dues was assumed, was the treaty of Spire, concluded with Holland in 1544. Then they introduced a distinction between privileged and unprivileged nations. England was at that time an unprivileged nation, as were also

Scotland, France, Portugal and Russia; and paid dues as such; viz., at the rate of one per cent. *ad valorem*. It is important to bear this in mind, inasmuch as it shows that at that time even unprivileged nations were not to pay more than one per cent., which rate was, however, afterwards applied to privileged countries as well. Privileged countries then paid quite nominal duties. The earliest tariff extant is that of 1558, when the unprivileged nations paid a rose noble, or nearly a pound of our present money, per vessel, and one per cent. upon goods, except in the case of wine, which paid $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Holland and the Hanse Towns, being privileged, paid six barrels of salt in kind, for which they received a gold florin in return, and there was a duty also on wine, but there appear to have been no other duties upon goods; and in the case of salt it was a purchase at a nominal sum. Then as respects the dues on vessels, the Hanse Towns were divided into three categories. The Vandal Hanse Towns of Lubeck, Hamburgh, Rostock, Stralsund, Wismar, and Luneburg had free ships and goods, but paid from one to three rose nobles for vessels with foreign goods; and the ten Eastern Hanse Towns, Dantzic, Konigsberg, Riga, Revel, Parnau, Stettin, Griefswald, Wolgast, Elbing, and Colberg paid one rose noble for their own goods, and in their own ships, and two rose nobles for foreign goods: lastly, Holland and the Western Hanse Towns paid one to two rose nobles per vessel. According to the tariff, Amsterdam had freedom for wine. The next treaty bearing upon the subject was in 1645; there were two treaties then concluded; one with Sweden, the treaty of Bromsebro, in which Denmark ceded various provinces to Sweden, and also exempted her from the Sound Dues; and in the same year the treaty of Christianople was concluded with Holland, which contains the first regular tariff by which specific duties were levied. They were intended to be one per cent., and unenumerated articles were to pay duty "according to old custom." They then reduced their whole system to one rule, applicable to privileged countries.

The tariff which was then agreed to included all the articles that were at the time known to commerce; and so little did they expect other articles, that they were content to lay down the indefinite rule that unenumerated articles were to pay according to old custom. Then in 1670 the treaty of Copenhagen for the first time applied this tariff to England. That is the first time there appear to have been any treaty stipulations between England and Denmark upon the subject. The treaty of Copenhagen became the treaty between England and Denmark.

The effect of that treaty was to apply the tariff of 1645 and the treaty of Christianople to England. It appears that the phrase "according to old custom," used in the former treaty with regard to unenumerated articles, must have led to difficulty, because we find that in 1701 a second treaty was concluded with Holland; that is the second treaty of Copenhagen (the first having been with England), which re-enacted the tariff for enumerated

articles, and then provided, for the first time, that one per cent. should be paid for unenumerated articles (the duty upon unprivileged countries being $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.), and that light dues should be paid of four specie rix dollars upon vessels with cargoes, and two upon vessels in ballast, which is equal to about 18s. and 9s. respectively. There is often a great deal of confusion in these matters, owing to Denmark keeping her accounts in two kinds of dollars, the specie rix dollar being double the value of the ordinary rix bank dollar. The term Sound Dues, included all dues levied in the Sound, whether light dues, or other dues paid for services rendered, or dues upon goods. The next treaty was the treaty of Fredericksborg with Sweden, concluded in 1720, after long wars. The people of Sweden renounced their exemption from Sound Dues, and ever since that time she has continued to pay them like other nations. In 1814 the treaty of Kiel with England and Sweden confirmed the right of Denmark to levy the Sound Dues upon Sweden, although Sweden had been victorious in the war. But as a compensation she had Norway ceded to her. At the same time Heligoland was ceded to England. Up to the year 1815 the Sound Dues went into the King's private coffer; it was only then that they went to the State, and it was not till 1835 that they appeared in the Danish Budget.

In 1814 or 1815 the Sound Dues were recognised generally throughout Europe. At the Congress of Vienna the matter was under discussion; but the King of Denmark was at Vienna, and great pity was felt for him in consequence of the bombardment of Copenhagen; and the subject is not referred to in the treaty of Vienna, although that treaty provided, in the case of river tolls, for their periodical revision by the bordering states.

The British treaty was concluded on the 13th of August, 1841, and accepted by Sweden and Russia, and Prussia afterwards accepted it, although she does not appear to have been consulted with reference to it. The chief provisions of the treaty are the following: it provides first for the maintenance of the tariff of Christianople of 1645 as a general rule. Then in the case of about 40 articles, which were at that time unenumerated, a duty calculated at one per cent. was for the first time established; it was calculated at the rate of one per cent., but converted into a specific duty. In the case of 70 other articles the duties were reduced.

Under the present tariff it is a specific fixed duty, supposed to be calculated at one per cent. upon the value; there are nearly 500 articles enumerated in the Sound tariff, and in 110 cases (that is, 40 previously unenumerated, and 70 previously enumerated), decided reductions were made, but in the case of the remaining articles, between 300 and 400 in number, the old rates were left exactly as they were in the tariff of Christianople.

The duties were reduced in the case of the articles mentioned, but in the case of the remaining articles, which were nearly 400 in number, the duties now are the same as those charged 200 years ago, and although at the time

they may have been one per cent., yet most of the things have grown so much cheaper now, that the duty upon them really comes to more than one per cent. There are nearly 400 articles enumerated in the tariff of Christianople that were left untouched in the reformed tariff of 1841. For the first time the treaty of 1841 recognised certain privileges enjoyed by Denmark, which had never previously been conceded to her by treaty. There is the obligation for the master to come on shore, which is for the first time imposed by the treaty: certain fees, inspectors' fees, interpreters' fees, and all other existing fees, together with the consolidation and recognition of small fees, which, although they had previously existed, had never had the sanction of a treaty, were for the first time solemnly confirmed; and lastly, the light dues, which had been four specie rix dollars on vessels with cargoes, and two on vessels with ballast, were increased to $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2}$ respectively, upon the ground of Denmark erecting certain fresh lights for the protection of the navigation.

The treaty was for 10 years, with power to denounce it on 12 months' notice. It is now enforced, although notice might have been given of its termination in 1852, on the 15th of June, 1851.

The following is a list of the countries with which Denmark has treaties recognising these dues:—The treaty with Austria was concluded in 1834; with Belgium in 1840; with Brazil in 1828; with France in 1742 and 1749; with Great Britain in 1670 and 1841; with Hamburg in 1760 and 1768; with Lubeck in 1840; with Bremen in 1835; with Holland in 1645 and 1701; with Mexico in 1827; with Norway in 1841; with Oldenburg in 1841; with Prussia in 1818 and 1846; with Russia in 1782 and 1831; with Spain in 1798; with Sweden in 1720 and 1841; with the United States in 1826; and with Venezuela in 1838. Hanover, Greece, Mecklenburgh, Naples, and Portugal, are likewise considered as privileged nations by Denmark. And it appears that Buenos Ayres, Peru, Rome, Sardinia, Turkey, and Tuscany, are unprivileged nations, and are therefore liable to pay $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on unenumerated articles, instead of 1 per cent.

As regards the rate of duties, there is so much upon the cargo, and so much upon the ship. The duty upon the vessel is $4\frac{1}{2}$ specie rix dollars, but very small vessels under a certain tonnage are exempt. The average size of the vessels that go to the Baltic is more than 40 tons; the average tonnage of British ships is not much less than 200 tons. For vessels under 40 tons it is a graduated scale; it is not a tonnage duty in any case, but a smaller amount upon the vessel. The treaty says that vessels of small burden shall pay on a reduced scale, namely, vessels of from 10 to 20 tons, one specie rix dollar; vessels of from 20 to 30 tons, one and a half specie rix dollars; vessels of from 30 to 40 tons, two specie rix dollars; vessels under 10 tons are entirely exempt. As to duties on goods, the per-centage of the duties on the articles imported

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into the Baltic is much higher than that upon those exported from the Baltic. On the following articles the duty is more than one per cent.: sugar, coffee, sulphur, spices, salt, cotton, iron, rice, saltpetre, wine, shumac, &c., &c., all of which are chiefly imported into the Baltic. Iron is both imported and exported. The case of cotton affords a good illustration; the duty upon it was fixed by the tariff at 18 stivers per 100 Danish pounds, which is rather less than an English hundredweight (it is 110 English lbs.) The American Government made strong complaints of that being an exorbitant duty, and in 1846 it was reduced to 10 stivers per 100 pounds; a stiver is $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ of English money: therefore the duty on cotton is now very nearly 1s. per cwt. At one per cent. it would make the value of cotton 11d. per pound. Supposing the duty of one per cent. to produce the sum named, the average value of cotton exported from America to the Sound ought to be 11d. a pound; but there is no doubt that, in reality, it is far less, so that the duty is excessive. The cotton that goes into the Baltic goes from Liverpool, and straight from America. They import a great deal themselves in American vessels. The British exports of cotton to the Baltic are considerable; in fact, Russia derives the bulk of her supply of cotton through us. A similar calculation with regard to sugar, the duty upon which by the tariff was 5 stivers per 100 pounds, which was reduced in 1846 to 4 stivers, shows that the value of the sugar ought to be $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ per pound.

The fine white Havana sugar is much imported through the Sound, and that was the basis on which the tariff was reduced in 1841. They took the average value of sugar imported into the Baltic during the last ten years, and owing to the nature of the Russian tariff, which was the same upon coarse and fine sugar, the fine sugar alone had been accustomed to go into the Baltic, and therefore it was upon the fine sugar that they struck the tariff; and the result is a duty which might have been one per cent. upon the fine sugar, but is much more than one per cent. upon the lower quality of sugar which America would wish to send.

Tropical produce is chiefly got from England. In 1852, of 1,945 vessels from England passing the Sound, 29 were laden with sugar, and 125 vessels with cotton.

In the year 1848 the United States Government offered Denmark the sum of 250,000 American dollars for exemption from the Sound Dues. The proportion of British tonnage which passed the Sound in different years is as follows:—In the year 1845, out of the total number of 15,950 ships, the British ships were 3,645, or 23 per cent.; in 1846 the British ships were 4,407, or 23 per cent. of the whole number; in 1847, they were 5,500, or 26 per cent.; in 1848, they were 6,721, or 40 per cent.; in 1849, they were 6,876, or 36 per cent.; in 1850, they were 5,464, or 28 per cent.; in 1851, they were 4,794, or 24 per cent.; in 1852, they were 3,902, or 22 per cent.; in 1853, they were 4,665, or $21\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; in 1854, they

were 2,032, or 12 per cent., and in 1855, they were 2,415, or 15 per cent. The entire tonnage of British ships in the Baltic, in 1848 to 1851, was:—In 1848 there were 6,721 vessels of 1,157,130 tons; in 1849, 6,876 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,183,938; in 1850, 5,464 vessels, of the tonnage of 939,725; and in 1851, 4,794 vessels, with a tonnage of 849,571. The average amount paid by the British vessels for the Sound Dues is from 50,000*l.* to 60,000*l.* The Danish Government put it down at 70,000*l.*

Mr. Z. C. Pearson described the mode of sailing in the Baltic and the method pursued in paying the Sound Dues, and commented on the bearing of the same on the freight and profits of Baltic ships.

Mr. Thomas Thompson showed the loss to Great Britain from the Sound Dues to be greater than 72,000*l.* paid to the Government, as there is a considerable amount paid to translators and other parties, and the money spent at Elsinore. In his opinion, the carrying trade with the Baltic in British vessels is a declining trade.

Mr. Thomas Park thought that the detention at Elsinore increases the risks.

Mr. T. R. Arnott expressed the opinion of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce, that the Sound Dues should be abolished—not the lighting and buoying rates, but the Sound Dues; the dues charged upon the cargoes, not upon the ships. These dues are inconvenient and injurious, by causing the ships to heave-to, and delaying their passage in the narrow Sound. The injury to shipping is estimated at 100,000*l.* to 120,000*l.* annually. The Baltic shipping is declining. The British shipping trading with the Baltic in 1851 was 849,000 tons, against 939,000 in 1850, and 1,183,040 in 1849. In 1853 the number of vessels was 4,665, against 3,952 and 4,751. The Danish Government returns 5 per cent. to the captains of the Baltic trade, but what is the motive is not known. There is a loan of 4,000,000*l.* to 5,000,000*l.* for which the Sound Dues were hypothecated.

Mr. Thomas Higgin, salt-manufacturer, said that the duty is said to be one per cent., but in fact it amounts to 12 per cent. upon the value of the salt. A cargo of salt of 500 tons is worth 250*l.* The Sound Dues upon that would be from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* a ton, which would be equal to 30*l.* upon the cargo, or about 12 per cent. on the value. It is one per cent. upon the nominal value; it is 24 stivers per last of two tons English. The arbitrary value was put in 1645. Twenty-four stivers amount to 2*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per last. This tax does not cover the light dues. The quantity of salt exported annually to the Baltic from England is about 100,000 tons, for which nearly 6,000*l.* is paid on English salt. The freight to the Baltic is 12*s.* on the average. The average quantity of salt sent from Liverpool to the Baltic is 70,000 tons, and from the east coast, 30,000 tons.

Mr. Christian Alhusen, of Newcastle, brought in a paper from the Newcastle Chamber of Commerce, which, after dwelling on the evils

produced by the Sound Dues, recommended the following course:—"That each article imported from the Baltic be subjected to a charge in lieu of the Sound Dues of about the same amount as is now paid at Elsinore. That each English vessel be subjected on her departure for the Sound, and on her return from the Baltic, to a charge in substitution of the dues now paid at Elsinore. That a separate account be kept of this fund, out of which the annual interest on the indemnity to be paid to Denmark should in the first case be discharged, the surplus being invested. That this special tax be discontinued so soon as the surplus, with accumulations, shall have liquidated the original outlay. That no deduction be made for collection. That this account be published annually, and that it, if possible, be made a condition of the general treaty that the several other Governments agree to adopt the same principle. The respective Governments might collect the substituted dues without much or any expense; but supposing there be a slight disbursement, the several nations could well afford so small a contribution in a matter of so much importance. Mr. Alhusen conceived that, with the power of borrowing at about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the principal sum of 1,000,000*l.* is pretty sure of being liquidated within fifteen years. However, if a settlement of the question should be arrived at by the payment of a fixed sum, he would strongly urge that provision be made for securing not only the unimpaired maintenance of all existing lights, buoys, and other facilities now afforded by Denmark, to shipping and commerce in the Sound and the Belts, but that a proper principle be laid down which shall provide for the construction of additional, and the substitution of improved lights and other facilities which future requirements may suggest. He would recommend that a certain portion of the intended indemnity be invested to meet this case, and that Commissioners be appointed by the contracting powers, with authority to do, without hindrance, what the majority may determine." The estimate for the liquidation is as follows: The duties in respect of merchandise and light dues paid at present are as follows: merchandise, 613,055 rix dollars; lights, 38,935 rix dollars; making a total of 651,990 rix dollars, which, at the rate of half-a-crown per dollar, would be equal to 81,498*l.* 15*s.* The interest upon 1,000,000*l.*, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., would be equal to 32,500*l.*; the balance of 48,998*l.* 15*s.* would therefore represent the positive and immediate gain to the nation. He assumed the future payment in respect to merchandise, lights, and passing tolls, to produce 100,000*l.*, a very moderate estimate; it follows, therefore, that nearly 70,000*l.* will accrue annually in the form of a liquidation fund. In Mr. Alhusen's opinion the real expense incurred and paid by the commerce of the country is 200,000*l.*

Mr. John Ormston, Newcastle, said the first inconvenience arising from the Sound Dues to the shipowners is, that in chartering cargoes for the Baltic the merchant binds the shipowner to have the vessel addressed to a particular agent at Elsinore; and he makes it a condition in the charter, that if the master fails to employ that agent, he shall deduct 1*l.* per keel of

21 tons. He described the time of detention at Elsinore, and the expense attending it. The trade with the Baltic has not materially decreased. There are more steamers employed in the navigation. There were fourteen last year out of Hull, averaging from 400 to 600 tons; besides, the steam tonnage does five times the work that the sailing vessels would do.

Mr. Michael Havelock, Newcastle, referred to the inconvenience experienced by the payment of these dues. The tax is in some instances "little less than one per cent., and in some rather more." The quantity of coals sent from the Tyne to the Baltic is somewhat short of 100,000 tons a year.

Mr. Frederick Boldemann, London, stated that Denmark levies duties equivalent to the Sound Dues on goods passing overland between the North Sea and the Baltic; a 5s. currency, and an additional 6 per cent. upon goods transmitted from Hamburg to London. This transit duty was introduced in 1839; but Russian produce is excepted, as well as similar produce coming from other countries, such as hemp from Sweden. The transit duty dates from the improvement of the road. It is $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $4\frac{3}{4}d.$ per cwt. The transit duty is levied by weight, per cwt., and the Sound Dues are levied by per-centage. The average of these transit dues is much higher upon certain articles than the Sound Dues are. Denmark renders no service in return; the road was made at the expense of Lubeck principally. The transit between Lubeck and Hamburg is increasing every year. Last year it amounted to about 300,000 to 400,000 cwts. Denmark derives 7,000*l.* to 8,000*l.* a year from this transit duty. No other country except Austria levies any transit duty, and there it is only $\frac{3}{4}d.$ a cwt. Many protests have been made against it.

Mr. Stephen West, Hull, showed the operation of the Sound Dues upon the imports of timber from the Baltic. In some instances the charge does come to one per cent., but in others it is as much as two per cent. The same charge for Sound Dues is made upon goods of unequal value. Thus, deals pay so much for a shock of 60 pieces, according to their length; some of those deals are worth twice as much as others, therefore the duty may be one per cent. in one instance, and two per cent. in another. Again, some difference exists in the dues imposed upon Russian deals and those upon Prussian deals. Those from Russia are 1*s.* 9*d.* per standard of 100, but those from Prussia, 2*s.* 3*d.* The trade with the Baltic is extending, but the proportion of trade carried on in British vessels decreases. The Prussians have always been large carriers, but the Swedes are becoming much more so than they were formerly. The Norwegians also are increasing their commercial shipping. The reason of the displacement of British vessels in the Baltic trade is the cheaper cost of building the vessels, and the cheaper cost of provisions and of wages in Sweden and Norway, as well as the cheaper cost of management. The Norwegian or Swedish owner sails his vessel at less cost than the English owner can do; and therefore he can make a profit when the English owner cannot, as they receive the same amount of freight. British vessels are a superior class of vessels to

Baltic vessels. The A 1 ships in this country are classed at Lloyd's for thirteen years, whereas a first-class foreign ship would not be classed as A 1 for more than nine or ten years.

Mr. Martin J. Bremer, London, referred to some States in the Baltic privileged as to Sound Dues. Thus a cargo of wheat coming by Rostock ships, having captains who are Rostock citizens, pays 2½d. a quarter, and if it is imported by other ships, either Mecklenburgh or English ships, or any other ships, it pays 4½d. Prussian ships are not on the increase. In 1850 there were 936 ships, containing 132,523 lasts; in 1856 there were 902 ships, so that there were 34 ships less than in 1850, but there were 140,048 lasts. The Prussian marine has been for twenty years in about the same state. A Prussian last is 1½ ton. Sweden has at present 1,505 ships of 210,000 tons, English register. In insurance the underwriters prefer Baltic ships; their captains are more careful than the English captains: Baltic captains do not often insure their own vessels. The Sound Dues are very unequally levied. At Elsinore there are twenty-five or thirty agents, who make on an average 1,000*l.* a year each.

Mr. A. G. Robinson, London, showed that the Sound Dues quite shut the shipowners out of all valuable traffic with the lower Baltic ports, and the valuable goods, instead of being carried by sea, are sent by rail. They are sent from England to Hamburg, and thence by railway, to avoid the Sound Dues.

Mr. John Timperley, a captain in the Russian trade, described the delay caused at Elsinore by the payment of the Sound Dues. Upwards of 100 vessels once arrived in the Sound at one time.

Mr. Robert Fleming, Dundee, said that the amount of Sound Dues paid by Dundee in the year ending 31st May, 1854, was estimated at nearly 15,000*l.* He dilated on the inconvenience experienced by the foreign trade by the delay and expense caused by the Sound Dues. The charges according to the tariff upon a vessel passing upwards, coal-laden, reckoning the exchange at 60*d.*, are—light and beacon money, 1*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; additional light and beacon money, 2*s.* 6*d.*; customs' fees, 15*s.*; poor's money, 5*s.*; translator's fee, 1*s.* 3*d.*: total, 2*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.* But though the total charges per tariff upon a vessel passing upwards, coal-laden, amount to 2*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*, the amount actually charged is, light money, 1*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; pass money and officers' fees, and expedition, 2*l.* 8*s.* 6½*d.*; translator's fee, 1*s.* 3*d.*; poor's money, 5*s.*; additional light money, 2*s.* 6*d.*; guardship, 1*s.* 5½*d.*; or a total of 4*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*; making an overcharge on vessels passing upwards of 1*l.* 15*s.* The charges according to the tariff for the downward voyage are as follows: the light money, 1*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; customs' fees, 15*s.*; translator's fee, 3*s.* 4*d.*; poor's money, 5*s.*; extra light money, 2*s.* 6*d.*; making a total for the downward voyage, per tariff, of 2*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* The light money goes to the Danish Government. But again, while the charge by the tariff on a vessel passing downwards is 2*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*, the shipowners are actually charged as follows: light money, 1*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*;

pass money and officers' fees, and expedition, 2*l.* 8*s.* 6½*d.*; guardship, 1*s.* 5½*d.*; poor's money, 5*s.*; additional light money, 2*s.* 6*d.*; or a total as the sum actually charged by the Elsinore agent of 4*l.*, making an overcharge on vessels passing downwards of 1*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*, which sum being added to 1*l.* 15*s.*, the amount of the overcharge on the upward voyage, gives a total overcharge of 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, or about 70 per cent. upon the amount of Sound Dues paid upon the voyage upwards and downwards. All vessels of 40 tons and upwards pay the same dues by the tariff. It is stated in the tariff of the Danish Government, that an allowance is made to every shipmaster of 4 per cent. on the amount of dues on his cargo, for the purpose of paying his expenses in going on shore to settle the dues; but this allowance is made through the agents, and no trace can be found of this per-centage being given credit for by them in their accounts against the British shipowners.

Mr. William Johnson, London, dealer in oats, objected to the Sound Dues—first, because on account of the Sound Dues themselves they have to pay an increase of freight; and secondly, because in the mode in which they are levied it enhances the cost of the cargo. In some seasons of the year 9*d.* per quarter of freight for vessels will be demanded for going inside the Sound as compared with outside the Sound. Then there is 1½*d.* per quarter for the cargo. Yet Danish produce does not pay Sound Dues.

Mr. Charles Alcock, Sunderland, showed that great risk attends the clearing at the Sound. Upwards of 4,000 ships passed the Sound in 1854, and there as many from Hartlepool and from Newcastle and Sunderland. The channel is not sufficiently lighted: it is about three miles, and if a ship should come up in the evening and the wind change in the night, it is delayed for a long time. The trade with the Baltic in British ships is decreasing. In 1849 we had 6,885 British ships in that trade, and in 1853 we had 4,665.

Mr. G. W. Hudson, shipowner, Sunderland, showed the effect of the Sound Dues on trade, and gave many instances illustrating the hardships they inflict.

Mr. Thos. Wilson, Hull, showed the difference in the expense between sending goods by railway and by sea. Upon some articles the saving is very enormous. Thus on worsted yarn, a bale measuring 42 cubic feet pays for Sound Dues 57*s.*, and the freight from Hull would be 15*s.*, making altogether 72*s.*—that is from Hull to St. Petersburg; but if conveyed by the Tonningen route, it would arrive at St. Petersburg for 46*s.*, saving 26*s.* In Mr. Wilson's opinion the cost to England, directly and indirectly, accruing from the Sound Dues is 300,000*l.* to 400,000*l.*, a year; therefore to capitalize it for a million of money would be a most advantageous thing. He confirmed previous statements as to the inequality of the charge.

Mr. Andrew Buchanan, British Minister at Copenhagen, stated the result of the Conferences called by the Danish Government, and gave the history of the treaty of 1841. He related the resistance made by Sweden to the

dues in 1840, and the steps taken by the United States Government on the subject. The United States are prepared to pay Denmark a fair indemnity for the abolition of the dues, upon the principle that the dues have been levied for lights, and other purposes essential to commerce. They will not object to pay a fair indemnity, but they will not pay it upon the principle that it is for the abolition of the Sound Dues. The principle upon which the whole of the payment for the Sound Dues of Europe was calculated was as follows: They ascertained the amount which they receive annually, and they capitalized it at 4 per cent. The amount set down for England is 72,289*l*. Multiply it by 25 it will give the sum of 1,807,224*l*. Instead of that sum Denmark will accept 1,125,206*l*, leaving a balance of 682,018*l* in our favour, which, if deducted from the capital of the dues levied on goods, gives a reduction of 40 per cent.; or if deducted from the whole amount of dues, a reduction of 37½ per cent.

Mr. Joseph Berridge, formerly an agent at Elsinore, stated the expenses incurred there. The population of Elsinore is 7,000 to 8,000.

Mr. Thos. M. Weguelin, Russian merchant, of London.—The whole amount of dues levied upon Baltic produce imported into England is under 80,000*l* a year, and the importation considerably more than 8,000,000*l*. He considered it of great national advantage to avoid the stoppage at Elsinore, provided the Danish Government undertook the lighting and buoying of the passage.

No. 1.

SOUND DUES (REVENUE FROM.)

		£	Rix-dols.	Authority.
	1645 stated at	36,000	= 320,000	Various sources.
	1720	54,707	= 486,284	
	1804	113,937	= 1,012,773	
	1835 (first time in budget) about	179,000	= 1,590,000	
	1837 about	213,750	= 1,900,000	
Dues on goods and Light Dues in Sound and Belts . .	1842 actual revenue	220,897	= 1,963,532	Table laid by Danish Government before the Congress at Copenhagen
	1843	241,069	= 2,142,838	
	1844	259,873	= 2,309,981	
	1845	257,648	= 2,290,204	
	1846	235,941	= 2,097,253	
	1847	265,259	= 2,357,864	
	1848 (war)	256,648	= 2,281,318	
	1849 (war)	277,193	= 2,463,943	
	1850 (war)	273,214	= 2,431,242	
	1851	260,345	= 2,314,179	
	1852	248,050	= 2,204,890	
	1853	287,602	= 2,556,463	
	1854 (war)	184,021	= 1,635,746*	
	1842-1854	251,389	= 2,234,574†	

* Estimated in Budget at 2,115,400 rix-dollars.

† Average for nine years of peace only, is Rix-d. 2,248,579 = £252,965.

N.B.—The Total Annual Revenue of Denmark varies from £1,600,000 to £1,900,000.

REPORT ON SOUND DUES.

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NO. 2.—CARGOES OF BRITISH SHIPS PASSING THE SOUND IN 1852.

	Number of Ships.		Number of Ships.
1. From United Kingdom to Baltic.		3. To United Kingdom from Baltic.	
Coals	1,009	Corn and Grain	390
Salt	146	Beans and Peas	21
Iron	120	Flax	285
Sugar	29	Hemp	160
Cotton	125	Linseed	128
Herrings	156	Timber	570
General cargoes	122	Tallow	114
Slates	20	Bones and Oilcake	50
Dye-woods	4	Zinc and Iron	43
Cement	7	Sleepers	32
Other articles	31	General cargoes	15
Ballast	176	Staves	16
		Ballast	40
		Other articles	19
Total	1,945	Total	1,883
2. From Foreign Ports to Baltic.		4. To Foreign Ports from Baltic.	
Sulphur	9	Provisions	6
Oil	2	(to Newfoundland.)	
Salt	5	Barley	1
Cork	2	Rye	1
Sugar	19	Deals	2
Coffee	4		
Wine	6		
General cargoes	2		
Other articles	4		
Total	53	Total	10
GENERAL TOTAL	3,891	OFFICIAL TOTAL	3,902

NO. 3.—VESSELS PASSING THE SOUND IN VARIOUS YEARS.

YEARS.	BRITISH.	TOTAL.	Per-centage Proportion of British to Total.	TONNAGE.			
				BRITISH.		TOTAL.	
				Gross.	Average per vessel.	Gross.	Average per vessel.
	No.	No.	Per Cent.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1785	2,537	10,268	25	Not given.		
1790	3,771	9,742	39				
1814	2,319	8,186	28				
1820	3,597	10,926	33				
1825	5,186	13,160	39				
1830	4,274	13,212	32				
1835	2,472	10,255	24	470,727	190	1,594,202	155
1840	4,071	15,662	26	733,139	180	1,972,524	126
1845	3,645	15,950	23	Not given.		
1846	4,407	18,710	23				
1847	5,500	21,536	26				
1848	6,721	16,587	40	1,157,130	172	2,644,448	160
1849	6,876	18,960	36	1,183,938	172	2,960,286	156
1850	5,464	19,121	28	939,725	172	2,399,578	125
1851	4,794	19,944	24	849,571	177	3,359,641	168
1852	3,902	17,563	22	Not given.		
1853	4,665	21,586	21½				
1854	2,032	16,368	12				
1855	2,415	15,787	15				

N.B.—Our Consul commenced sending Returns in 1831.

No. 4.

RETURN OF THE NUMBER OF VESSELS, SPECIFYING THE DIFFERENT NATIONS, AND THE AGGREGATE TONNAGE OF EACH FLAG OR NATION, WHICH PASSED THE SOUND AT ELsinore, FOR THE YEARS 1845 TO 1854, INCLUSIVE.

NATIONALITY OF VESSELS.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.		1849.		1850.		1851.		1852.	1853.	1854.
	Vessels.*	Vessels.*	Vessels.*	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.*	Vessels.*	Vessels.*
British	3,645	4,407	5,500	6,721	1,157,130	6,876	1,183,938	5,464	939,725	4,794	849,571	3,902	4,665	2,032
Danish	1,254	1,347	1,830	1,241	...	1,154	...	1,285	...	1,538	...	1,464	2,095	1,898
Norwegian	2,122	2,479	2,808	1,997	...	2,888	...	2,545	...	2,887	...	3,020	3,393	3,398
Swedish	1,607	1,859	2,087	1,951	...	2,175	...	2,028	...	2,308	...	2,100	2,907	2,583
Russian	815	899	820	981	...	1,200	...	1,159	...	1,009	...	946	1,202	166
Prussian	3,105	3,580	3,342	1,281	...	1,363	...	2,400	...	2,691	...	2,319	3,487	3,095
Austrian	1
Mecklenburg	986	1,177	1,213	307	...	338	...	1,014	...	1,059	...	771	1,103	873
Lübeck	109	105	119	60	...	40	...	103	...	129	...	136	139	111
Hamburg	22	37	45	10	...	8	...	38	...	79	...	46	73	61
Bremen	32	63	73	11	...	6	...	31	...	33	...	22	36	11
Oldenburg	128	164	258	55	...	74	1,776,348	216	1,459,853	203	2,510,070	183	230	79
Hanoverian	778	986	1,150	227	...	305	...	511	...	737	...	545	743	497
Dutch	874	1,278	1,647	1,689	...	1,975	...	1,833	...	2,002	...	1,691	1,875	1,460
Belgian	8	6	13	9	...	13	...	6	...	6	...	2	22	11
French	319	214	480	149	...	365	...	317	...	289	...	283	345	81
Spanish	8	6	10	8	...	4	...	4	6	4	—
Portuguese	10	4	...	3	2	18	12
Italian	58	43	50	20	...	56	...	61	...	44	...	48	50	23
American (U. S.)	80	60	81	140	...	120	...	103	...	131	...	76	96	46
South American.	—
Greek	1	1	—
Total	15,950	18,710	21,536	16,857	2,644,448	18,960	2,960,286	19,121	3,399,578	19,944	3,389,641	17,563	21,586	16,368

* Tons not specified.

Note.—This Return is compiled from the annual returns furnished by Her Majesty's Consul at Elsinore, and it is stated that the tonnage of vessels passing the Sound cannot be more generally specified.

Statistical Department, Board of Trade, 5th June, 1856.

A. W. FONBLANQUE.

No. LVL—UNITY JOINT-STOCK MUTUAL BANKING ASSOCIATION.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 15th July, 1856, for Copy of Case and Opinions laid before the Board of Trade with reference to the Application for a Royal Charter for the Incorporation of the Unity Joint-Stock Mutual Banking Association. (Mr. Lowe.) (361.)

CASE.

It is proposed to establish a joint-stock bank, to be called "The Unity Joint-Stock Mutual Banking Association," under the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 113. It is proposed to pay to the customers interest equal to one-half of the profits of the bank, not as profits, but as interest. The draft-deed contained clauses authorizing the Directors to apply any proportion of the net profits of the Association for forming a reserved surplus fund, and to pay to the customers interest on the amount of their respective accounts. After making due provision for the reserved fund and interest, the clear net profits are to be ascertained; the Directors shall pay such additional sum for interest on the average amount of the customers' cash balance, during such last preceding year, as shall bear the same proportion to one equal half-part of the net profits so ascertained as his said average amount shall bear to the aggregate average amounts of the cash balances of all the said customers during such last preceding year, it being optional with the customer to receive such additional interest; and the same customers shall not be considered, nor in fact be partners in the Association, nor in any manner interested in the capital of the joint-stock, or the profits thereof, or entitled to any account thereof respectively, nor be liable for any of the debts, losses, or engagements of the Association; but shall only be creditors of the Association in respect of their several cash balances for the time being, and such interest thereon as aforesaid, and the report or statement of the amount of such interest from time to time made by the Directors for the time being of the Association, shall be binding and conclusive on the customers. The Directors to determine upon the dividend every year out of the net profit of the Association. According to the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 113, s. 6 & 7, notwithstanding the incorporation of joint-stock banks, the shareholders remain liable for all the dealings of the Association. Now joint-stock banks are in the habit of allowing their customers interest on the minimum balance of their current accounts. The Unity Association would extend the same principle by allowing an annual interest besides, and thus create a mutuality of interest between the shareholders and customers, the same as between shareholders and assurers. The customers have no voice in the management of the Association's affairs, and it would appear unreasonable to render them liable. On the other hand, it seems politic to give them an interest in the success of the business, because they are the source from which all profits must be derived. Upon this case the following opinions were given:—

1. "It appears to us to be a conclusion warranted by the existing state of the decisions on the subject of partnership, that the receipt by a customer

in the manner proposed of annual or half-yearly interest on his minimum or other balances for the preceding year, will not render such customer, either directly or indirectly, liable as a partner in the bank.

2. "We have thought it advisable to alter the collocation of the proposed clauses, in order to define more clearly the intention that the interest is to be paid out of the general funds of the Association, and not out of profits; but we do not think that the clauses require to be altered or amended in any other respect.

"RICHARD BETHELL.

"Lincoln's Inn, 15th May, 1855."

"WM. WELLINGTON COOPER.

1. "In our opinion, the receipt by a customer in the way proposed by the above clauses, taken from the deed of settlement, of an annual or half-yearly interest on his minimum or other balance for the preceding year, does not render such customer either directly or indirectly liable as a partner in the bank.

2. "We cannot suggest any amendment of the above clauses.

3. "The third question does not arise.

"See *ex parte* Hamper, 17 Vesey, 403; Pott v. Eyton, 3 C. B. 32; Stocker v. Brocklebank, 3 M. N. & G. 256.

"WM. WELLINGTON COOPER.

"Lincoln's Inn, 23rd April, 1855."

"JAMES WILLES.

Some slight alterations were made in the clauses of the deeds, upon which the following questions were put for an opinion:—

1. Whether the receipt by a customer in the way proposed by the above clauses, taken from the draft-deed of settlement of the Unity Joint-Stock Mutual Banking Association of an annual or half-yearly interest on his minimum or any other balance for the preceding year, renders such customer either directly or indirectly liable as a partner in the bank?

2. Whether the above clauses can be altered or amended in any way, so as more effectually to carry out the intentions of the promoters of the Unity Banking Association to give to the customers an interest proportioned to a moiety of the ascertained profits, without rendering the customers liable as partners?

3. Whether, if you are of opinion that the above clauses do not carry out the intention of the promoters, the intention can be carried out in any and what other way?

OPINION.

"After much consideration of this case, we are of opinion that, although the general rule of law is that any participation in the profits of a concern will constitute a person so contracting a partner, yet that, as the authorities fully establish that a contract for service with a trader, where no partnership is intended to be established, although the remuneration may be made contingent upon and to be paid out of profits, will, nevertheless, form an exception to the general rule, the same principle will, by analogy, apply to the present case, and therefore a loan or deposit, which in point of law is a

loan, the interest on which, or any portion thereof, is to be contingent upon or paid out of interest, will, in like manner, fall within the exception. We are of opinion, therefore, that no partnership will be constituted under the circumstances stated.

“ A. E. COCKBURN.

“ RICHARD BETHELL.

“ G. BRAMWELL.

“ WM. WELLINGTON COOPER.

“ Temple, 22nd December, 1855.”

“ JOHN HURRELL.

No. LVII.—NATIONAL DEBT.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 26th June, 1856, for A Return of the Amount of the National Debt existing on the 31st March, 1856, specifying the description of Stock, the interest payable on each description, the reduction or increase of Interest payable, with the cause of such reduction or increase, and showing the Amount of Stock created or redeemed; also Account of Stock cancelled or exchanged for Terminable Annuities in each year, 1807 to 1856. (Mr. Ricardo.) (416.)

THE National Debt existing on the 31st March, 1856, was 775,312,694*l.*, of which 3,007,775*l.* bore interest at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; 769,000,280*l.*, interest at 3 per cent.; 2,871,515*l.*, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and 433,124*l.*, at 5 per cent.; making an annual interest of 23,267,361*l.* In the year ending 31st March, 1856, there was effected a reduction of interest of 37,236*l.* by stock purchased with Sinking Fund, transferred and unclaimed. There was also an increase of interest of 747,243*l.* by stock created by loans and by Exchequer Bills; besides 116,000*l.* annuity for thirty years, ceasing payment on 5th April, 1885. The debt created in the year amounted to 24,908,134*l.*, of which 3,333,250*l.* was created by Exchequer Bills funded. The debt redeemed in the same year was 1,241,257*l.*

The capital stock cancelled in each year in exchange for terminable annuities, from the 1st September 1808 to the 31st March 1856, amounted to 50,391,074*l.*, and the long annuities cancelled, 165,889*l.* 14*s.* The largest amount cancelled was in 1831, when it was 8,737,094*l.*; and in 1835, 6,500,169*l.* In other years it varied from 500,000*l.* to 2,500,000*l.* In the year ending 31st March 1856, there were in existence 1,955,248*l.* 19*s.* annuities for lives and terms of years, besides 1,295,421*l.* created under various loans, which will expire in 1859 and 1860; 585,740*l.* annuity purchased by the Bank of England under the Act 4 Geo. 4., c. 22, which will expire on 5th April 1867; 116,000*l.* annuity created by the loan of 16,000,000*l.*, per Act 18 Vict., c. 18, which will expire on 5th April 1885; and 47,114*l.* 17*s.*, the Tontine annuities payable in England and Ireland created by 13 & 14 Geo. 3, Irish Acts, and 29 & 30 Geo. 3.

National Debt Office, 25th July, 1856.

LVIII.—TARIFFS.

A Return of the Rates of Duty upon the principal articles (so far as the same can be given) levied in each of the years 1855 and 1856 by the Tariffs of Foreign Countries in which changes were made within that period, and showing the per-centage of Increase and Decrease.

List of Countries included in this return:—Sweden, France, Austria, Roman States, Mexico and Peru. In continuation of the Return presented in August 1855.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

SWEDEN.—The prohibition was removed to the importation of pig and ballast iron, and a duty of 1s. 8d. per 400 lbs. imposed. Prohibition was also removed with regard to silk, cotton, and woollen and linen manufactures, and a duty of 6s. to 8s. per lb. on silk; 10d. to 1s. 3d. per lb. on cotton; and 1s. 3d. to 2s. 6d. per lb. on woollen; and 3s. 4d. per lb. on linen manufacture. A number of articles of provision, including grain and flour, &c., were admitted duty free.

FRANCE.—Considerable reduction in the import duties of 50 to 70 per cent., were made on skins, sago, camphor, rhubarb, tamarinds, &c.; of 9 to 12 per cent on sugar. Molasses admitted duty free. The duties on timber of all kinds were considerably reduced. Masts and spars, duty free. The duties on several kinds of iron were reduced 40 to 60 per cent. On machinery 20 to 40 per cent. Agricultural implements, 10 to 20 per cent. Wool, the *ad valorem* duty was changed into specific.

AUSTRIA.—A reduction of 15 to 40 per cent. was made in the duties on coffee, drugs, sugar, fish, oil, wine, iron, yarn, and manufacture of lead.

ROMAN STATES.—The duties on cotton dyed in the piece and fabric were reduced 20 to 40 per cent.; on wood furniture, 20 per cent.; on China common and fine clay, 50 per cent. On zinc, lead, and tin, 37½ per cent. On pig iron, 70 per cent. Oil, 50 per cent, &c.

MEXICO.—The duties on cotton, linen, silk and woollen manufactures of all kinds were reduced 15 to 40 per cent.; on iron, ironmongery, and hardware, 33½ to 40 per cent. Cutlery, 37½ to 40 per cent.; on jewellery, 40 per cent. On wine, 30 per cent. On glass, 40, and on miscellaneous articles, such as paper, cinnamon, butter, pictures, &c., from 10 to 60 per cent.

PERU.—A number of articles paying an *ad valorem* duty were changed to a specific duty. The duty on earthenware was increased 66⅔ per cent.; on fish, salt or smoked, 233½ per cent.; on glassware, 66⅔; on iron in sheets, 233⅔ per cent.; and nails, 66⅔; whilst iron hoops are admitted free. Tobacco for chewing, duty free, &c.

No. LIX.—ACCOUNTS RELATING TO TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

TWO MONTHS ENDED 30TH JUNE AND 31ST JULY, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE IMPORTS AND CONSUMPTION OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, IN THE MONTHS ENDED 30TH JUNE AND 31ST JULY, 1856.

Articles.	June, 1855.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Animals, living, viz.:			Cotton, Raw, from		
Oxen and Bulls			British India . cwts.	116,294	114,527
number	1,201	4,806	Other Parts . "	9,147	8,972
Cows . "	160	639	Cotton Yarn . lbs.	100,593	79,171
Calves . "	1,495	4,550	Cotton Manufactures,		
Sheep . "	5,669	22,785	not made up:		
Lambs . "	747	4,743	East India Piece		
Swine and Hogs			Goods . pieces	16	29,667
number	42	2,560	Other Articles		
Ashes, Pearl and Pot			value £	26,878	22,598
cwts.	555	19,992	Cotton Manufactures,		
Barilla and Alkali			wholly or in part		
tons	225	5	made up:		
Bark for Tanners' or			Fringe . . lbs.	2,911	1,037
Dyers' use			Gloves . . pairs	1,236	899
cwts.	29,000	38,865	Stockings & Socks "	13,606	26,554
Bones of Animals, &c.,			Other Articles		
whether burnt or			value £	1,842	1,140
not, or as Animal			Cubic Nitre	19,925	20,040
Charcoal . . tons	7,549	8,971	Dyes and Dying		
Brimstone . cwts.	107,757	175,269	Stuffs, viz.:		
Caoutchouc . "	3,637	4,305	Cochineal	256	528
Clocks . number	19,280	19,927	Indigo . . "	13,776	14,126
Cocoa . . lbs.	1,206,829	1,201,219	Lacdye . . "	1,166	136
Coffee, viz.:			Logwood . tons	1,745	6,629
Imported from British Possessions			Madder . cwts.	10,519	6,313
out of Europe			Madder Root . "	11,527	12,320
lbs.	4,770,209	2,762,827	Shumac . tons	814	1,205
Imported from other			Terra Japonica "	433	372
Parts . . lbs.	3,487,361	3,136,664	Cutch . . "	129	173
Corn, viz.:			Valonia . . "	1,611	3,175
Wheat . . qrs.	211,068	434,957	Embroidery and		
Barley . . "	21,902	34,856	Needlework:		
Oats . . "	83,502	126,998	By Weight . lbs.	1,964	857
Peas . . "	3,235	17,078	By Value value £	6,934	5,033
Beans . . "	27,861	35,070	Flax, Dressed	223	2,636
Indian Corn, or			Undressed . "	74,142	129,368
Maize . . "	196,200	204,969	Tow or Codilla		
Wheat Meal or Flour			of Flax . . "	8,391	13,972
cwts.	446,679	760,329	Fruits, viz.:		
Oat Meal . . "	1,854	1,607	Currants . cwts.	4,593	1,782
Rye Meal . . "	432	209	Figs . . "	4	96
Pea Meal . . "	20	1	Lemons and Oranges		
Indian Corn Meal			bushels	21,998	3,002
cwts.	689	311	Raisins . . cwts.	677	1,702
Buckwheat Meal "	9	—	Glass Manufactures:		
Cotton, Raw, from			Window Glass and		
United States			Shades and Cylinders		
Brazil . . "	1,013,244	754,473	Plate Glass . lbs.	2,754	2,747
Egypt . . "	10,674	13,661		59,916	97,651
	19,205	40,914			

SERIES A.

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Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Glass Manufactures:			Linen Manufactures:		
White Flint Glass Goods (except Bottles) not cut, engraved or otherwise ornamented			Plain Linen and Diaper, and Manufactures unenumerated, not made up . value £	2,752	5,532
lbs.	31,688	26,308	Sails . . . "	68	9
All Flint Cut Glass, Flint Coloured Glass, and Fancy Ornamental Glass			Articles wholly or in part made up:—		
cwts.	730	1,027	Cambric Handkerchiefs number	2,303	2,672
Guano . . . tons.	20,083	15,047	Unenumerated value £	474	293
Hemp, Dressed cwts.	3	3,735	Mahogany . . . tons	3,226	2,964
Undressed . . "	25,938	49,774	Metals, viz.:		
Tow, or Codilla of Hemp . . . "	138	1,984	Copper Ore and Regulus . . . tons	6,869	9,155
Jute . . . "	66,980	157,880	Copper, unwrought, and part wrought		
Other Vegetable Substances of the nature of Undressed Hemp .	525	620	cwts.	6,135	9,804
Hides, Untanned, viz.:			Iron, in bars, unwrought . . . tons	1,954	4,390
Dry . . . cwts.	9,438	27,891	Steel, unwrought		
Wet . . . "	55,628	64,300	tons	174	149
Hides, Tanned, Tawed, Curried, or Dressed (except Russia Hides) . . lbs.	180,129	409,422	Lead, Pig and Sheet		
Lace, and Articles thereof:			tons	529	574
By Weight . . "	264	437	Spelter . . . "	1,417	1,582
By Value value £	210	277	Tin, in Blocks, Ingots, Bars, or Slabs		
Leather Manufactures:			cwts.	3,820	3,755
Boots, Shoes and Calashes, viz.—			Oil, viz.:		
Women's Boots and Calashes pairs	2,539	2,855	Train, Blubber and Spermaceti tons	389	1,782
Women's Shoes with Cork or Double Soles, Quilted Shoes and Clogs			Palm . . . cwts.	27,768	111,039
pairs	34	85	Cocoa Nut . . . "	12,290	21,787
Women's Shoes of Silk, Satin, Stuff, or leather pairs	9,021	7,633	Olive . . . tons	1,414	2,187
Men's Boots and Shoes . . pairs	2,925	2,864	Rapeseed . . . "	194	378
Children's Boots and Shoes . . pairs	351	152	Oil Seed Cakes tons	4,663	7,298
Cut into Shapes			Opium . . . lbs.	4,650	2,445
cwts.	4	69,477	Potatoes . . . cwts.	4,058	68,106
Boot Fronts . pairs	57,608	1	Provisions, viz.:		
Boot Backs . . "	348	13	Bacon . . . "	67,587	109,982
Gloves . . . "	293,324	311,964	Hams . . . "	1,589	4,845
Unenumerated value £	141	291	Beef, Salted, not Corned . . cwts.	24,510	22,602
Linen Manufactures:			Beef, Fresh, or slightly salted		
Lawns, not French value £	2	41	cwts.	5	2
Cambrics & French Lawns sq. yds.	4,304	14,924	Pork, Salted . cwts.	14,974	27,768
Damasks and Damask Diaper			Poultry, Alive or Dead . value £	1,263	2,044
sq. yds.	2,182	252	Butter . . . cwts.	41,658	47,855
			Cheese . . . "	34,653	47,113
			Eggs . . . number	14,630,600	11,376,400
			Lard . . . cwts.	11,462	16,016
			Rice . . . cwts.	402,312	524,800
			Rice, in the Husk gra.	5,681	672
			Saltpetre . . . cwts.	18,062	58,722
			Seeds, viz.:		
			Clover . . . cwts.	1,222	713
			Flaxseed and Linseed . . . qrs.	46,689	97,040
			Rape . . . qrs.	25,294	19,375
			Tares . . . "	407	135
			Silk, viz.:		
			Raw . . . lbs.	651,321	463,867

BOARD OF TRADE ACCOUNTS.

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Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Silk, viz.:			Sugar, unrefined, viz.:		
Waste, Knubs and Husks . cwt.	1,179	1,118	Of or from Mauritius:		
Thrown . lbs.	103,367	43,149	Equal to White Clayed . cwt.	2,260	3,708
Silk Manufactures of Europe, viz.:			Not equal to White Clayed . cwt.	130,721	138,370
Silk or Satin, Broad Stuffs . lbs.	15,100	13,010	Not equal to Brown Clayed . cwt.	103,088	107,948
Silk or Satin, Ribbons . lbs.	10,856	19,165	Of or from British Possessions in the East Indies:—		
Gauze or Crape, Broad Stuffs lbs.	571	519	Equal to White Clayed . cwt.	5,851	6,441
Gauze or Crape, Ribbons . lbs.	1,509	1,784	Not equal to White Clayed . cwt.	35,770	55,476
Gauze, mixed with Silk, Satin, or any other Materials, in less proportion than one-half of the Fabric, viz.:			Not equal to Brown Clayed . cwt.	29,998	44,210
Ribbons . "	234	544	Of or from other parts:—		
Velvet Broad Stuffs, the foundation being of Silk . lbs.	2,252	2,638	Equal to White Clayed . cwt.	41	1,608
Velvet Broad Stuffs, the foundation being of other Materials than Silk . lbs.	95	203	Not equal to White Clayed . cwt.	44,570	192,786
Ribbons of Velvet or Plush, entered from 8th August, 1854 . lbs.	11,093	21,937	Not equal to Brown Clayed . cwt.	63,789	140,781
Plush for making Hats . lbs.	12,148	14,033	Sugar, Refined, and Candy, of or from British Possessions out of Europe . cwt.	1,826	495
Silk Manufactures of India, viz.:			Other parts . cwt.	5,945	24,724
Bandannoes, Corahs, Choppas, Tussore Cloths, Romals, and Taffaties, entered from 8th Aug., 1854 pieces	92,582	41,886	Molasses, of or from British Possessions out of Europe . cwt.	32,351	44,044
Spices, viz.:			Other parts . "	110,327	94,839
Cassia Lignea lbs.	92,231	143,265	Tallow . "	53,630	82,792
Cinnamon . "	61,236	37,768	Tar . . lasts	534	527
Cloves . "	131,867	170,940	Tea . lbs.	7,426,706	7,872,505
Mace . "	1,800	17,629	Timber & Wood, viz.:		
Nutmegs . "	10,283	48,092	Deals, Battens, Boards, or other Timber or Wood, sawn or split:		
Pepper . "	684,952	841,544	Of British Possessions . loads	28,006	84,664
Pimento . cwt.	2,971	982	Foreign . "	26,241	43,011
Spirits, viz.:			Staves . "	3,823	4,633
Rum . p. gals.	584,245	682,256	Timber or Wood, not being Articles sawn or split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with duty:		
Brandy . "	353,805	158,360	Of British Possessions . loads	14,112	83,457
Geneva . "	9,703	9,856	Foreign . "	41,566	41,325
Sugar, unrefined, viz.:					
Of or from the British Possessions in America:					
Equal to White Clayed . cwt.	270	128			
Not equal to White Clayed . cwt.	180,357	252,865			
Not equal to Brown Clayed . cwt.	223,218	204,256			

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Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Tobacco, viz:			Wine, viz:		
Stemmed . lbs.	739,980	77,513	Spain:		
Unstemmed . lbs.	1,444,021	926,880	Red . galls.	6,793	2,110
Manufactured, and			White . "	472,150	324,991
Snuff . lbs.	267,205	148,437	Canaries:		
Turpentine, common			White . galls.	25	8,179
cwts.	26,907	21,435	Naples and Sicily:		
Watches:			Red . galls.	53	23
Exceeding the value			White . "	3,646	51,732
of 10l. each No.	64	29	From other Coun-		
Not exceeding the			tries:		
value of 10l. each			Red . galls.	15,929	9,938
No.	7,112	7,082	White . "	8,514	32,727
Whale Fins . cwts.	547	552	Wool, Sheep and		
Wine, viz:			Lambs':		
Of British Posses-			From British Pos-		
sions in South			sessions out of		
Africa:			Europe . lbs.	8,151,260	17,009,367
Red . galls.	20,828	11,742	From other parts "	3,611,172	4,108,443
White . "	48,871	15,539	Alpaca and the		
Of other British			Llama Tribe lbs.	104,836	110,870
Possessions:			Woollen Manufac-		
Red . galls.	117	6	tures:		
White . "	49	17	Manufactures not		
Foreign:			made up . value £	168,993	242,888
From Holland:			Articles or Manu-		
Red . galls.	442	424	factures of Wool		
White . "	11,976	15,078	wholly or in part		
From France:			made up:		
Red . galls.	42,607	75,085	Carpets and Rugs		
White . "	24,417	26,426	sq. yds.	748	3,694
Portugal:			Shawls, Scarfs, and		
Red . galls.	329,118	262,162	Handkerchiefs		
White . "	13,487	9,912	lbs.	1,976	986
Madeira:			Gloves . pairs	24	—
Red . galls.	92	—	Other Articles		
White . "	17,037	6,759	value £	1,095	1,432

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE IN THE TWO MONTHS ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1856, AND 31ST JULY, 1856.

Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Cheese . . cwts.	292	391	Cotton, Raw, viz.: im-		
Cocoa . . lbs.	772,599	1,078,334	ported from		
Coffee, viz:			Brazil . . cwts.	1,203	2,865
Imported from Bri-			Egypt . . "	107	—
tish Possessions out			British India "	38,372	62,116
of Europe . lbs.	1,994,698	2,472,894	Cotton Yarn . lbs.	21,017	39,647
Imported from other			Cotton Manufactures		
Parts . . lbs.	609,917	1,316,136	not made up, viz.:		
Corn, viz:			East India Piece		
Wheat . . qrs.	5,721	4,909	Goods . pieces	5,876	6,982
Oats . . "	389	76	Other Articles, val. £	4,176	8,226
Wheat Meal or Flour			Cotton Manufactures		
cwts.	947	4,331	wholly or in part		
Cotton, Raw, viz.: im-			made up:		
ported from			Fringe . . lbs.	884	626
The United States			Gloves . . pairs	1,200	—
cwts.	37,401	40,357	Stockings & Socks "	5,568	9,744

Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Cotton Manufactures:			Silk Manufactures of		
Other Articles, val.£	1,215	377	Europe, viz.:		
Dyes and Dyeing			Gauze or Crape		
Stuffs, viz.:			Ribbons . lbs.	16	39
Cochineal . cwts.	719	1,161	Gauze mixed with		
Indigo . . "	3,552	6,254	Silk, Satin, or any		
Lac dye . . "	298	613	other Materials, in		
Logwood . tons	368	129	less proportion		
Terra Japonica "	13	81	than one-half of		
Cutch . . "	14	11	the Fabric, viz.:		
Embroidery & Needle-			Ribbons . lbs.	11	—
work:			Velvet Broad Stuffs,		
By weight . lbs.	151	736	the foundation be-		
By value value £	1,062	677	ing of Silk . lbs.	119
Glass Manufactures,			Ribbons of Velvet or		
viz.;			Plush, entered from		
Window Glass, and			8th Aug., 1854 lbs.	571	496
Shades and Cylin-			Plush for making		
dars . . cwts.	696	305	Hats . . lbs.	105
All Flint Cut Glass,			Silk Manufactures of		
Flint Coloured do.,			India, viz.:		
and Fancy Orna-			Bandannoes & other		
mental do. cwts.	31	32	Silk Handkerchiefs,		
Guano . . tons	4,248	4,970	Corahs, Choppas,		
Hides, Untanned, Dry,			Tussore Cloths, Ro-		
cwts.	10,964	6,546	mals, and Taffaties,		
Untanned, Wet "	1,967	1,413	entered from 8th		
Tanned, Tawed, Cur-			Aug., 1854 . pieces	36,312	37,597
ried, or Dressed,			Spices, viz.:		
except Russia Hides			Cassia Ligna . lbs.	27,173	47,804
lbs.	7,667	14,125	Cinnamon . . "	41,957	16,194
Leather Manufac-			Cloves . . . "	102,751	55,216
tures, viz.:			Mace . . . "	2,286	5,177
Gloves . . pairs	31,620	32,904	Nutmegs . . "	7,186	9,092
Metals, viz.:			Pepper . . . "	236,967	575,593
Copper, unwrought			Pimento . cwts.	1,806	1,684
and part wrought			Spirits, viz.:		
cwts.	2,304	4,858	Rum . prf. galls.	246,673	553,825
Iron, in bars, un-			Brandy . . "	183,928	158,383
wrought . tons	121	293	Geneva . . "	5,313	13,118
Steel, unwrought "	218	Sugar, Unrefined, viz.:		
Spelter . . "	399	91	Of or from the Brit-		
Tin in Blocks, In-			ish Possessions in		
gotas, Bars, or Slabs			America . cwts.	1,511	583
cwts.	14	229	Of or from Mauritius		
Oil, viz.:			cwts.	20,050	21,340
Palm . . cwts.	10,416	32,638	Of or from British		
Cocoa Nut . . "	6,565	14,476	Possessions in the		
Olive . . . tons	459	342	East Indies cwts.	5,950	9,170
Opium . . lbs.	4,035	3,028	Foreign . . "	22,897	29,709
Quicksilver . . "	76,459	144,667	Foreign, Refined, and		
Rice, not in the Husk			Candy, viz.:		
cwts.	124,118	134,129	Of or from British		
Silk, viz.:			Possessions out of		
Raw . . lbs.	195,186	75,480	Europe . cwts.	419	63
Waste, Knubs and			Other Parts . . "	2,129	3,730
Husks . cwts.	89	53	Molasses, of or from		
Thrown . lbs.	39,876	19,740	British Possessions		
Silk Manufactures of			out of Europe		
Europe, viz.:			cwts.	416	3,448
Silk or Satin Broad			Of or from other		
Stuffs . lbs.	284	579	Parts . cwts.	324	978
Silk or Satin Rib-			Tea . . lbs.	401,703	325,994
bons . . lbs.	918	1,054	Tobacco, viz.:		
Gauze or Crape			Stemmed . lbs.	2,272
Broad Stuffs lbs.	339	Unstemmed . "	894,641	507,672

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Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	Articles.	June, 1856.	July, 1857.
Tobacco, viz.: Foreign Manufactured, and Snuff lbs.	212,865	96,474	Wool, Sheep and Lambs', viz.: From other Parts lbs.	342,919	490,320
Wine, viz.: Red, of British Possessions . galls.	54	361	Alpaca and the Llama Tribe lbs.	8,955	1,064
Red, Foreign " . galls.	113,185	121,305	Woollen Manufactures, viz.: Manufactures not made up value £	1,135	845
White, of British Possessions . galls.	529	1,018	Articles or Manufactures of Wool wholly or in part made up, viz.: Carpets and Rugs sq. yds.	120	93
Red, Foreign " . galls.	111,261	119,044	Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs lbs.	367	348
Red and White—mixed in Bond . galls.	1,293	Other Articles, val. £	721	40
Wool, Sheep and Lambs', viz.: From British Possessions out of Europe . lbs.	1,608,392	925,988			

EXPORTS—BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE, &c.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL AND OTHER ARTICLES OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES IN THE TWO MONTHS ENDED 30TH JUNE AND 31ST JULY, 1856.

Articles.	Quantities.		Declared Value.	
	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
Alkali, viz.: Soda . . . cwts.	121,871	120,067	£ 51,768	£ 53,901
Beer and Ale barrels	37,918	31,011	131,729	113,078
Butter cwts.	18,533	16,072	95,654	77,480
Candles lbs.	723,604	872,632	35,822	43,547
Cheese cwts.	2,761	3,247	12,058	13,829
Coals and Culm tons	531,467	599,930	260,089	285,227
Cordage and Cables . . cwts.	12,993	10,343	25,325	20,328
Cotton Manufactures: Entered by the Yard (exclusive of Lace & Patent Net) yards	197,317,438	167,385,082	2,728,105	2,353,998
Lace and Patent Net . . "	6,869,141	7,914,860	36,066	40,210
Thread for Sewing . . lbs.	553,574	385,731	61,943	34,509
Stockings doz. pairs	116,680	89,705	42,207	31,442
Of all other descriptions . value £	35,366	27,922
Cotton Yarn lbs.	14,261,723	15,564,419	608,267	675,850
Earthenware pieces	9,015,742	7,072,467	117,611	109,832
Fish, viz.: Herrings . . barrels	7,414	16,116	7,849	18,191
Of other sorts . . . value £	5,124	4,249
Glass Manufactures: Flint Glass cwts.	5,553	4,475	17,638	14,057
Window Glass "	2,249	1,383	1,848	1,835
Bottles, Green or Common . "	39,685	46,088	22,355	25,516
Plate Glass value £	4,933	4,233
Haberdashery and Millinery . . "	339,660	346,853
Hardwares and Cutlery . . "	332,566	317,686
Leather, Unwrought . . cwts.	3,007	2,068	24,303	19,885
Wrought, viz.: Gloves . lbs.	8,087	5,907	7,129	5,053
Of other sorts "	472,945	620,266	87,472	111,786
Saddlery and Harness . value £	18,754	25,734

BOARD OF TRADE ACCOUNTS.

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Articles.	Quantities.		Declared Value.	
	June, 1856.	July, 1856.	June, 1856.	July, 1856.
			£	£
Linen Manufactures:				
Entered by the Yard (exclusive of Lace of Thread) . . . yards	14,491,372	11,447,283	436,834	350,709
Lace of Thread . . . "	8,499	5,824	275	71
Thread for Sewing . . . lbs.	357,129	430,165	37,365	34,564
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	5,407	4,045
Linen Yarn . . . lbs.	2,040,448	2,037,406	114,105	112,328
Machinery and Mill Work, viz.:				
Steam Engines and parts of . . . value £	67,462	70,796
Of all other sorts . . . "	143,507	186,064
Metals, viz.:				
Iron, Pig . . . tons	32,602	25,222	128,439	100,213
Bar, Bolt, and Rod . . . "	66,421	62,308	599,086	542,953
Wire . . . "	974	880	20,553	17,251
Cast . . . "	7,367	5,742	69,922	55,993
Wrought of all sorts . . . "	28,238	24,814	370,927	327,372
Steel, Unwrought . . . "	2,124	1,818	71,749	59,553
Copper in Bricks and Pigs . . . cwts.	8,090	12,153	43,515	66,556
Sheets, Nails, &c., (including Mixed or Yellow Metal for Sheathing) . . . "	20,848	23,450	125,850	132,973
Wrought of other sorts . . . "	3,730	3,785	26,800	23,453
Brass of all sorts . . . "	2,805	1,597	14,252	9,596
Lead . . . tons	1,851	1,336	48,377	34,530
Tin, Unwrought . . . cwts.	3,010	2,950	19,141	18,539
Tin Plates . . . value £	126,370	113,057
Oil, Linseed, Hempseed, and Rapeseed . . . galls.	516,250	403,717	71,253	57,752
Painters' Colours and Materials . . . value £	36,962	33,929
Salt . . . bushels	2,574,972	2,769,729	35,128	35,841
Silk Manufactures:				
Of Silk only:				
Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons . . . lbs.	50,367	76,762	57,634	95,851
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	444	2,665	612	3,354
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	46,866	52,006
Of Silk mixed with other Materials:				
Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons . . . lbs.	36,744	57,821	18,982	28,954
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	1,136	161	538	124
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	15,447	18,064
Silk, Thrown . . . lbs.	97,207	75,360	103,410	83,381
Silk Twist and Yarn . . . "	58,102	61,978	26,777	30,236
Soap . . . cwts.	20,311	19,556	25,251	25,704
Stationery . . . value £	53,439	69,834
Sugar, Refined . . . cwts.	43,460	11,598	109,667	30,204
Wool, Sheep or Lambs' . . . lbs.	1,692,742	1,477,632	111,954	95,680
Woollen and Worsted Manufactures:				
Woollens entered by the piece . . . pieces	74,614	55,624	298,255	226,006
Woollens entered by the yard . . . yards	8,733,751	7,013,507	382,715	322,169
Worsted Stuffs . . . pieces	265,001	200,035	322,932	254,011
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	29,346	17,273	15,760	12,940
Articles entered at value . . . value £	68,621	81,001
Woollen and Worsted Yarn . . . cwts.	16,741	19,118	188,733	214,776
Yarn of Wool or Worsted mixed with other Materials . . . "	467	485	11,391	12,903
Total declared value:				
Of numerated Articles . . . £	9,583,904	8,821,577
Of unenumerated Articles . . . £	1,077,183	1,146,649
All Articles . . . £	10,661,087	9,968,226

No. LX.—EXCISE.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE SEVERAL ARTICLES CHARGED WITH DUTIES OF EXCISE, THE QUANTITIES EXPORTED, AND THE QUANTITIES RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION, IN THE SIX MONTHS ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1856.

Articles.	Quantities charged with Duty.	Quantities exported to Foreign Parts.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.
ENGLAND.			
Hops . . . lbs.	533,255	—
Malt . . . bushels	20,316,903	91,506	20,312,653*
Paper . . . lbs.	69,166,417	5,303,089	63,863,328
Spirits . . . gallons	4,783,025	1,015,028	4,418,195
Beer exported . . barrels	207,613	—
SCOTLAND.			
Hops . . . lbs.	—	—	—
Malt . . . bushels	584,745	4,787	584,745*
Paper . . . lbs.	20,035,708	842,783	19,192,925
Spirits . . . gallons	3,397,834	823,648	3,375,909
Beer exported . . barrels	20,490	—
IRELAND.			
Malt . . . bushels	772,672	772,672
Paper . . . lbs.	3,892,215	8,398	3,883,817*
Spirits . . . gallons	3,353,413	119,639	3,350,315
Sugar (Home made) . . cwts.	562	562
Beer exported . . barrels	1,681	—
UNITED KINGDOM.			
Hops . . . lbs.	533,255	—
Malt . . . bushels	21,674,320	96,293	21,670,070*
Paper . . . lbs.	93,094,340	6,154,270	86,940,070
Spirits . . . gallons	11,534,272	1,963,315	11,144,419
Sugar (Home made) . . cwts.	562	562
Beer exported . . barrels	229,784	—

* Since the 14th August, 1855, malt has been made duty free for distillery purposes, under the provisions of the Act 18 and 19 Vic., c. 94. The greater portion of the malt made in Scotland is so used.

No. LXI.—RACE-HORSES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 15th July, 1856, for A Return showing the amount of Duty collected on Race-horses in each of the last five years ended the 5th April, 1856, distinguishing each year. (The Chancellor of the Exchequer.) (385.)

THE amount of duty collected in the year ended 5th April, 1852, was 4,452*l.*; 1853, 4,865*l.*; 1854, 4,483*l.*; 1855, 4,868*l.*; 1856, 5,451*l.*

No. XXXIII.—TRANSPORTATION.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Provisions and Operation of the Act 16 and 17 Vict., c. 99, intituled "An Act to substitute in certain cases other punishment in lieu of Transportation."

THE Committee consisted of Mr. Baines, Sir John Pakington, Mr. Scott, Mr. Wortley, Sir William Heathcote, Mr. Adderley, the Lord Advocate, Mr. Serjeant O'Brien, Mr. Henley, Mr. Wickham, Mr. John Wynne, Mr. Massey, Mr. Becket Denison, Mr. Deedes, Mr. Seymour Fitzgerald, Lord Naas, and Mr. Ker Seymer. The Committee reported as follows:—

1. That the punishment of transportation is more effectual and deterring, better adapted for the ultimate reformation of convicts, and more beneficial to this country, than any other secondary punishment for serious crimes which has yet been tried.

2. That the Committee therefore recommend the continuation of the sentence of transportation, so far as her Majesty's dominions may afford safe and proper facilities for that purpose.

3. That if such facilities can be obtained, sentences of ten years' transportation should be revived.

4. That convict prisons beyond the seas ought to be regarded as places for carrying out the sentence of transportation.

5. That every punishment by penal servitude should include, first, a certain fixed period of imprisonment and hard labour on public works, to be undergone at all events; secondly, a further period, which should be capable of being abridged by the good conduct of the convict himself.

6. That it appears, from the evidence before the Committee, that bad effects upon the discipline of convicts on the public works have already been caused by the regulations under which it has been made known that no tickets-of-leave, or other remission of sentence, would in any case be granted to men sentenced to penal servitude.

7. That, with a view to give full effect to the principle indicated in Resolution 5, the sentences of penal servitude prescribed by the Act should be changed and lengthened, so as to be identical with the terms of transportation for which they are respectively substituted.

8. That the sentences of penal servitude now in force might be adopted, with some few changes, as the fixed periods recommended in Resolution 5.

9. That the scale of secondary punishment would be more complete if a shorter period of penal servitude than any now in force were enacted, as an intermediate sentence between the present term of ordinary imprisonment now usually inflicted, and the former sentence of seven years' transportation, or its equivalent.

10. That the hulk system, which appears by the evidence to be already, in a great measure, relinquished, should be finally abandoned, with as little delay as possible.

11. That the system of licenses to be at large, or tickets-of-leave, authorised by section 9 of the Act, has been too short a time in operation in this country to enable the Committee to form a clear and decided opinion either as to the effects which it has already produced, or as to its probable ultimate working.

12. That that system appears to be founded upon a principle wise and just in itself—viz., that of enabling a convict to obtain, by continued good conduct while undergoing his punishment, the remission of a portion of his sentence, upon the express condition, however, that, in case of subsequent misconduct, his liability to punishment shall revive for the residue of the term specified in the original sentence.

13. That there has been much of misapprehension and exaggeration with regard to the conduct of persons released upon tickets-of-leave, who have been frequently confounded (even by several of the witnesses on this inquiry), under one common designation of "ticket-of-leave men," with convicts whose sentences had fully and absolutely expired.

14. That there is reason to believe that the conduct of a large proportion of the whole number of persons discharged upon tickets-of-leave has hitherto been good; and that in other cases persons so discharged have relapsed into crime from the difficulty arising from their former characters becoming known, of procuring or retaining honest employment in this country—a difficulty, however, which obviously applies to all persons once convicted, whether discharged upon tickets-of-leave, or absolutely at the expiration of their sentences.

15. That, to render this system of tickets-of-leave adapted both for the reformation of offenders and the interests of the public, the conditions endorsed upon the tickets-of-leave ought to be enforced more strictly than appears to have hitherto been the case.

16. That every convict, on his release with a ticket-of-leave, ought to be reported to the police of the town or district to which he is sent.

17. That full information of any change in the regulations affecting persons under sentence of transportation or penal servitude, should from time to time be furnished by the Home Office to the Judges, Recorders and Chairmen of Quarter Sessions.

11th July, 1856.

Mr. Horatio Waddington, permanent Secretary of State for the Home Department, showed that the suspension of transportation to New South Wales in 1850 was caused by the opposition offered to it in Australia in consequence of the large number of convicts (17,000) sent out from 1840 to 1845 inclusive. In Great Britain the number sentenced to transportation from 1848 to 1852 were 16,299, of which number there were actually transported 10,963, or a little more than two-thirds. Since the passing of

the Act, the number discharged under licenses or tickets-of-leave has been 4,873 males, and 279 females, making together 5,152. Up to the 11th March, 1856, the number reported for misconduct was 447; of these 148 had their license revoked, and 25 were acquitted. The return of crimes in 1854 exhibited a considerable increase upon those in 1853. The number of committals for indictable offences in England and Wales in 1854 was 29,359 against 27,057 in 1853, showing an increase of 8 per cent. In Scotland, also, there was an increase of crimes of 6 per cent. The increase was of a peculiar nature; it was not in the worst sort of offences, but it was principally in simple larceny from masters, and frauds. There was also an increase in the offence of housebreaking. The dearness of the articles of consumption may have an influence on the increase of crime; but, at the same time, people have then less money to spend in drink, which is a fruitful incentive to crime. In 1847 and 1848 almost the whole number of extra criminals was traceable to crimes produced by the political excitement which prevailed. In 1842, also, the number of political prosecutions was enormous. In 1855 the number of commitments was 26,724, against 29,359 in 1854, which, taking into consideration the addition of 22 counties made to the Winter Circuit, the reduction will be 3,537, or 12 per cent. In 1853 the number of persons sentenced to transportation was 1,864; to penal servitude, 504; total, 2,368. In 1854, to transportation, 310; penal servitude, 2,108; total, 2,418. In 1855, to transportation, 325; to penal servitude, 2,048; total, 2,373. On the effect of the silent system on the mind, Mr. Waddington stated that the human frame and understanding will not bear confinement beyond a certain period. There is a certain character of mind in which confinement produces a depression which often leads to delusions, and ultimately to confirmed lunacy. He recommended the extension of transportation.

Mr. Thomas F. Elliot, Assistant Under Secretary-of-State in the Colonial Department, detailed the different measures taken with regard to the Colonies. In 1849 and 1850, Western Australia applied for receiving convicts. In 1850, there were sent 384; in 1851, 878; in 1852, 442; in 1853, 1,192; in 1854, 280; in 1855, 485—total, 3,319, since 1850. Since the introduction of convicts into Western Australia, the colonial revenue increased considerably. In 1849 it was 9,600*l.*; in 1854 it was 33,000*l.* The imports of 1849 was 28,500*l.*; in 1854, 128,200*l.* The exports in 1849, 26,100*l.*; in 1854, 34,100*l.* Besides the number of convicts, there were 3,786 persons sent by public aid to Western Australia. The cost of the convict establishment in South Australia was 322,525*l.* The charge of transports, with the guard, &c., will not fall short of 80,000*l.* With the present reduced number of persons sentenced to transportation, and under the condition of sending one description of convicts only to so great a distance, it is difficult to obtain a sufficient supply of convicts for Western Australia. As to the expediency of forming a new penal settlement, Mr. Elliot thought it impossible to form a new one.

In the first place, as a question of geography, he could not think of any unoccupied territory well fitted for the reception of European convicts. In the next place, if there be any free population, they will not consent to receive our criminals; if there be none, we might have a repetition of Norfolk Island on a large scale. In order that transportation be advantageous as a secondary punishment, there must be a free population willing to receive and employ the convicts. The idea of founding a colony of 20,000 to 30,000 grown-up male criminals, without women, without a free community, and without even any resident public officers excepting those answerable for their custody, is one, in Mr. Elliot's opinion, fraught with great danger. The Falkland Islands, and the Auckland Islands, and the Chatham Islands, have been proposed, but these places would present no security whatever for convicts at large. Vancouver's Island would be too distant. The territory of the Hudson's Bay Company is too cold. In Mr. Elliot's opinion, the time has arrived when England must do without transportation. Nor would it do to convert some of the Scotch islands, or some of the Hebrides, into receptacles for convicts. They would be well for a penitentiary, but not for penal settlements. Again, the disgust in our colonies at transportation, as distinguished from mere imprisonment, has taken firm root among them. It began as a natural feeling in society—a social feeling—and one amongst the parents of families; but it has since become a political passion, and political passions are much more lasting in the relation between a colony and the mother country, than in the case of different parties within the same territory. Such is the opposition made in Australia to the importation of convicts, that bills are continually passing, apparently of the most oppressive character, about them. They actually throw the *onus probandi* upon a man to prove that he ought to be free, if they suspect him of being a convict; and unless he can at once prove his free character, he is shipped off or imprisoned, and put to hard labour. The same feeling exists in Van Diemen's Land. In the want of places for transportation, it is the duty of Government and of Parliament to provide means of giving employment to criminals, so as to qualify them for their return to society. First of all, it is important to try to diminish the sources of crime; to try to render the whole number of criminals less by general good government, and by more education. Secondly, we should try to reform juvenile delinquents, who are the beginners; and thirdly, prison discipline must be improved.

Captain D. O'Brien, Director of Convict Prisons.—On the 11th March, 1856, there were 1,716 male convicts. In the public works prisons, 3,729; invalids, 1,155; at Parkhurst, juveniles, 383: total, 6,983 male prisoners sentenced to transportation and penal servitude. The prisons which will be retained, when the arrangements are complete, are—Milbank, capable of holding 1,100 prisoners; Pentonville, capable of holding 560; Wakefield, to hold 400 prisoners; and Leicester, to hold 115 prisoners. The number of tickets-of-leave issued in the quarters

ending June 1854, was 480; September 1854, 551; December 1854, 550; March 1855, 433; June 1855, 761; September 1855, 550; December 1855, 694; March 1856, 660; making a total of 4,679. The number of licenses issued previously to April 1854 amounted to 649; making a total of 5,328 licenses issued to the 31st of March 1856. The number of licenses revoked within the quarters ending June 1854, 8; September 1854, 2; December 1854, 12; March 1855, 19; June 1855, 28; September 1855, 28; December 1855, 28; March 1856, 55. Previously to June 1854, there was one license revoked; making a total of revocations, up to the end of March 1856, of 181. The following is a comparison of the discharges in 1854, with revocations in corresponding periods of 1855:— In the quarter ending June 1854, there were 480 discharges; in the quarter ending June 1855, there were 28 revocations; in the quarter ending September 1854, there were 551 discharges; in the quarter ending September 1855, there were 28 revocations; in the quarter ending December 1854, there were 550 discharges; in the quarter ending December 1855, there were 28 revocations; in the quarter ending March 1855, there were 433 discharges; in the quarter ending March 1856, there were 55 revocations; making a total of 2,014 discharges in the year ending March 1855, and 139 revocations in the year ending March 1856; the revocations in the year ending March 1856 bearing a proportion of $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the discharges which had taken place in the previous year. Of the 139 revocations mentioned, as having taken place in the year ending March 1856, 109 were in respect of prisoners whose licenses were revoked within twelve months after their discharge; that is to say, the prisoners whose revocations took place in the year ending March 1856, bore a proportion to the discharges for the year ending March 1855, of about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It is difficult to put the numbers in any way which will give an accurate per-centage of the revocations that take place in one period with respect to prisoners who may be discharged in a corresponding period. For instance, the number of discharges in the first six months, that is to say, from the 1st of October 1853 to the 31st of March 1854, were 640; and up to the present time, covering a period of from two years to two and a half years, the number of licenses revoked is 29, being equal to about $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Hence, of those that were discharged in the first six months, there are only $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. returned; whereas, in the year ending March 1856, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the discharges which had been granted within twelve months previously, were revoked. It is clear that it is very difficult to show any exact per-centage of revocations. However imperfectly it may be ascertained, the known and unknown relapses will amount to about 20 per cent., and the reformation about 80 per cent. By reformation, it is meant that the persons discharged conduct themselves fairly and decently. Certain gratuities have been paid to convicts on their discharge. In one year, 12,369*l.* were paid, giving an average of 6*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.* per head. As to clothing, a lad on his leaving Parkhurst gets a good suit

of liberty clothing and two shirts, his bible, and his prayer-book. The prisoners are allowed to labour in agriculture, tailoring, carpentering, smith's work, and brick-making. Captain O'Brien gave many examples of the subsequent conduct of ticket-of-leave boys, who have given great satisfaction to their masters. Of 151 lads named who had been discharged, and whose circumstances were known, 134 have turned out satisfactorily; 17 have not turned out satisfactorily. But there are 148 more, of whom nothing has been heard. In the opinion of Captain O'Brien, the proportion of prisoners who are reformed would show that adults might be doing well in the ratio of 80 per cent., and the juveniles in the ratio of 70 per cent. The average age of boys, on their discharge from Parkhurst, is between 18 and 22. About female convicts, on the 1st April 1856 there were 884. This number, it is supposed, would be increased on the 1st January 1857 to 1,664; on the 1st January 1858, to 1,372; and on the 1st January 1859 to 1,432. This includes all women sentenced to transportation in England. Scotland provides for her own female convicts, which might be about 100 annually. Upon a classification of 400 female convicts at Brixton, there were found 18 per cent. well disposed; 46 per cent. badly disposed, but cautious; 25 per cent. impetuous; and 11 per cent. utterly bad and reckless. A system of colonization never will do for women. The worst thing which can happen to a colony, is having a number of these female convicts sent out to it. The brand of transportation is fatal to a woman when she arrives, and fatal to the colony afterwards if numbers are sent.

Captain Irvine S. Whitty, Director of the Convict Prisons, produced a table showing the quarterly rate of revocation to be 0·3 per cent. on the aggregate number. Prisoners under 10 years' sentence receive their licenses at 4 years; under 14 at 6½; and under 20 at 8 years. The earnings of prisoners depend upon their character and industry. The first-class, comprising men of best character, get 9*d.* a week; the second-class, the middling, get 6*d.*; and the third-class, the worst, 4*d.*; besides each man may earn an additional 6*d.* by industry. The outside that a convict can earn is 3*l.* 5*s.* per annum.

Colonel Jebb stated that on an average of 10 years, previous to 1851, the number of sentences to transportation and imprisonment, respectively, were—7 and 10 years' transportation, 2,626; imprisonment for 3 years, and above 2, only 5; 2 years and above 1, 473. After this the resolutions of the Committee of the House of Commons were to the effect of reducing the number to be sent abroad by increasing the number who should be sent to prison for moderate periods of one or two years. Then came the Act 16 & 17 Vict. in 1853, at the passing of which there were 6,700 men in this country under sentence of 7 and 10 years' transportation in Great Britain. Since the Act, 5,042 were released on licenses; and of these 404 had their licenses revoked, or 8 per cent. The number released in different counties is as follows, to the 31st December, 1855. In

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Bedfordshire 13, Berkshire 58, Buckinghamshire 26, Cambridgeshire 53, Cheshire 68, Cornwall 21, Cumberland 10, Derbyshire 37, Devonshire 98, Dorsetshire 28, Durham 42, Essex 69, Gloucestershire 64, Hampshire 130, Herefordshire 22, Hertfordshire 44, Huntingdonshire 12, Kent 102, Lancashire 557, Leicestershire 53, Lincolnshire 65, Middlesex 926, Northumberland 65, Nottinghamshire 55, Norfolk 73, Northamptonshire 42, Oxfordshire 42, Rutlandshire 4, Shropshire 31, Somersetshire 211, Staffordshire 146, Suffolk 63, Surrey 104, Sussex 38, Warwickshire 198, Westmorland 9, Wiltshire 52, Worcestershire 66, Yorkshire 311; Wales 96; making altogether 4,104. The population of these different counties is taken from the census returns; and the proportion of ticket-of-leave men to 10,000 of the inhabitants would be as follows:—1 per 10,000 in Bedfordshire; three and four-tenths in Berkshire; one and six-tenths in Buckinghamshire; two and nine-tenths in Cambridgeshire; one and five-tenths in Cheshire; six-tenths in Cornwall; five-tenths in Cumberland; one and two-tenths in Derbyshire; one and seven-tenths in Devonshire; one and five-tenths in Dorsetshire; one in one seven-hundredths in Durham; one and nine-tenths in Essex, one and four-tenths in Gloucestershire; three and two-tenths in Hampshire; one and nine-tenths in Herefordshire; two and six-tenths in Hertfordshire; one and nine-tenths in Huntingdonshire; one and six-tenths in Kent; two and seven-tenths in Lancashire; two and six-tenths in Leicestershire; one and six-tenths in Lincolnshire; four and nine-tenths in Middlesex; two and one-tenth in Northumberland; two in Nottinghamshire; one and seven-tenths in Norfolk; two in Northamptonshire; two and four-tenths in Oxfordshire; one and seven-tenths in Rutlandshire; one and three-tenths in Shropshire; four and seven-tenths in Somersetshire; two and four-tenths in Staffordshire; one and nine-tenths in Suffolk; one and five-tenths in Surrey; one and one-tenth in Sussex; four and two-tenths in Warwickshire; one and five-tenths in Westmorland; two and four-tenths in Wiltshire; two and three-tenths in Worcestershire; one and eight-tenths in Yorkshire; and eight and two-hundredths in Wales. The expense of transportation under the new system, of an assumed maximum number of 17,250 prisoners in England, and at Gibraltar, Bermuda, and Western Australia, is 346,750*l*.; and for 1,200 females, 24,000*l*.; or together, 370,750*l*.; from which deduct the earnings, 175,050*l*.; leaving net 195,700*l*. The gross expense of the system of transportation, as it stood some years ago, for 15,720 prisoners, was 587,294*l*.; and the real cost to the country, after deducting the value of their labour on public works, was 419,476*l*. Colonel Jebb stated that the present establishments at home, and at Gibraltar, Bermuda, and Western Australia, may accommodate all the convicts likely to be sent out under the new system. He gave particulars of benevolent institutions as refuges to friendless prisoners on their discharge, and pending their employment. As to the effect of punishment, he thought that capital punishment is very deterring upon the population of the country; and that the next most

detering punishment would be imprisonment for life; such a sentence would make a very serious impression upon the whole criminal population, and there would be no difficulty nor inhumanity in carrying out imprisonment for life at Dartmoor or Portland. The extent of earnings of prisoners in separate confinement is about 5*l.* or 6*l.* a year. Those on public works at about 12*l.* or 15*l.* a year; in Ireland, 5*l.* a year; at Bermuda and Gibraltar, 18*l.* a year; and taking the average of 17,000 prisoners, it may be about 12*l.* a year. Colonel Jebb suggested that all sentences of transportation for fifteen years and upwards, should be carried out by so many years of penal servitude at home, reducible on good conduct, and so many years of transportation with a ticket-of-leave. Upon the working of the ticket-of-leave system, Colonel Jebb pronounced it successful, although it marks the individuals as a class, which mark has interfered with the prospects of many in obtaining employment. To prevent this, it would be important to take steps to conceal the character of the individuals as released convicts.

Captain Walter Crofton, Chairman of the Directors of Convict Prisons in Ireland, said that at the time of the passing of the 17th and 18th Vict., the convicts were morally and physically prostrate in every way. He explained the steps taken to remedy the overcrowding of the prisons, and the measures taken for improving the educational departments of the convict prisons. Evening schools have been established. The prisoners receive constant visits from their chaplains. The employment of their time is from five in the morning until nine at night; the time for labour is 9½ hours; exercise and meals, 2½ hours; lecture, reading, and prayers, 3¾ hours; cleaning their cells and washing themselves, ¾ of an hour; so that they are employed for sixteen hours out of the 24. There was a wooden building in the prison, fortunately, which had been turned into a sort of mechanics' institute and lecture-room, where these men study by themselves, and where these lectures go on, and which make a mechanics' institute in the evening, but they are employed 16 hours out of the 24. The following are the subjects of the lectures, from the 17th of March to the 11th of April:—"Monday, Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties. Tuesday, Remarkable Inventions. Wednesday, New South Wales and New Zealand. Thursday, Man, his duty to God, his Relation to his Fellows. Friday, The Atmosphere and its Uses. Monday, The Atmosphere and its Uses. Tuesday, Railways and Electric Telegraph, their Origin, History and Progress. Wednesday, Printing and its History. Thursday, What a Man with Brains may do. Friday, Coal and the Coal Mines. Monday, Physical Geography and its Curiosities. Tuesday, The Electric Telegraph and its Uses. Wednesday, On Self-denial and Decision of Character. Thursday, Some Remarkable Inventions. Friday, Canada and its Resources. Monday, The Seasons, the Calendar, and the Tides. Tuesday, Works of God. Wednesday, Wonders of Science. Thursday, Temperance, and the Cost of Drunkenness. Friday, What Machinery

has done for the World." The men make their notes of the lectures as they go on; and on each Saturday evening there is a sort of competitive examination. Now, these men were lamentably ignorant when they entered that institution; they were perfectly uninformed, although many of them could read and write; but it is not the case now. Before they have been at work for two or three months, the competitive examinations which they go through are marvellous. Captain Crofton gave the satisfactory evidence of the good result of the ticket-of-leave system, yet he objected to it on account of the paucity of employment and the absence of proper supervision. Transportation is generally regarded by convicts as a boon, and the best conducted men should be so rewarded by being selected for Western Australia. In Ireland about 800 convicts are discharged annually. Two hundred selected convicts might be annually deported to Western Australia, 200 sent to Bermuda and Gibraltar, or placed in penal establishments at home. Female prisoners are numerous in Ireland, but they are not so much of the prostitute class as in England.

Earl Grey, Secretary of State for the Colonies from July 1846 to the beginning of 1852, said that, in 1846 New South Wales was the only colony open; but, subsequently, transportation to Van Diemen's Land was resumed. In 1846 a change was made, adopting as a rule the infliction of the strictly penal part of the sentence in this country instead of in the colonies. Earl Grey objected to the reduction of the lengths of sentences of penal servitude as compared to the former sentences of transportation, and would return to the old system. As a relaxation of sentence, there should be power to send any convict to some colony with a ticket-of-leave.

M. D. Hill, Q. C., Recorder of Birmingham since 1839, and Commissioner of Bankruptcy for the Birmingham District, considered that the Act 16 & 17 Vict. has worked well, and in fact better than he had anticipated. An unfavourable opinion exists against tickets-of-leave, on the erroneous ground that they are a substitute for imprisonment. At the same time, the advantages of the Act have been unduly magnified, inasmuch as most probably great numbers are re-convicted without identification, or are living dishonestly. There are many ticket-of-leave men in Birmingham who are not known as such to the police; and so it is in Bristol. The want of surveillance is not so much an evil as the want of identification; and to meet this want, photographic likenesses might be easily obtained. Since the establishment of railways, thieves have become much more locomotive than they were. Railways have given facilities for disposing of stolen goods: a receiver of stolen goods at Aberdeen has established an agency at Dundee. These locomotive thieves have head-quarters in the 14 large towns; and they make professional excursions from them. According to the statistics of Mettray, the number of recommitments is 10 per cent.; but there are many beyond that in a doubtful situation. Great success has attended the system of placing the less hardened juvenile and adult

offenders immediately after their discharge under guardians. There is no reason for making the sentence of penal servitude less than that of transportation. The word "transportation" conveys at present a fallacious idea, and should be abandoned. There are two meanings that may be attached to it. Transportation may be used as a means of disposing of reformed criminals; and also as a strictly penal ingredient in their sentence. As a general principle, release should not be granted till there is a sign of amendment. In order to insure the due administration of justice, there should be full communication between the Home-office and judges, recorders, and magistrates, who have to execute Acts of Parliament. At present, the Home-office is called upon to make regulations, of which judges, recorders, and magistrates know nothing. Mr. Hill gave evidence, showing the pernicious effects of short imprisonments; there is, in fact, no time for reformatory action. Of 138 prisoners in the calendar of the last Birmingham session, 58 had been previously convicted, altogether, at least 200 times. The Sociétés de Patronage are flourishing in the continental states and in America.

Sir Archibald Alison, Sheriff of Lanarkshire, said that in very numerous instances criminals sentenced to transportation or penal servitude, within a year or two of the sentence, are again found at large and re-convicted. The ticket-of-leave system has had the very worst possible effects in Scotland; it has sent back the most talented, the most dangerous, and the most formidable class of depredators; and they are either concerned in the greatest crimes themselves, or they lead others to the commission of the same description of crimes. For the efficient administration of the criminal law there should be three punishments apart from those for capital crimes. For the first offence, which is generally committed by boys or girls of very tender years, a punishment of eight or ten days' imprisonment—solitary confinement—for no other object but merely to frighten them. For the second offence, a longer time of imprisonment—such as may be long enough to have them taught, whether they would or not, some useful trade. For the third offence, in every instance, transportation for a period—say, for seven or ten years. If transportation be impracticable, one of the islands in the Hebrides, such as Islay, should be allotted to convicts, and cultivated by spade-labour. There should also be a staff of detectives, to go from place to place, to identify ticket-of-leave men before re-conviction. In conducting any new system of transportation, four or five free settlers should be sent out for every convict, if necessary, at the public expense. Canada would be the best place for such a purpose.

Mr. James Smart, Superintendent of Police at Glasgow, showed that the ticket-of-leave system in Glasgow has been unsuccessful, on account of the absence of intimation as to the return of the men, and the want of inter-communication among the police, so as to ensure proper superintendence. He apprehended an increase of crime, directly and indirectly, under the present system of tickets-of-leave.

Mr. William Hart, Procurator Fiscal of the Sheriffs' Court of Lanarkshire, at Glasgow, considered that the substitution of imprisonment and tickets-of-leave for transportation has operated very unfavourably in Glasgow. Before the Act of 1853, when sentences of transportation were duly carried out, a convict was rarely tried a second time, in subsequent years; but now instances of re-conviction are very frequent. Crime is also consequent upon association with ticket-of-leave men. They have a tendency to corrupt others.

Mr. James McLevy, a detective officer at Edinburgh, thought the ticket-of-leave system not a good one. The men came back just as bad as on their first conviction. Previous to the Act of 1853, instances were rare of transported convicts returning to Edinburgh, but now they were frequent.

Sir Matthew Barrington, Bart., Crown Solicitor in Ireland for the Munster Circuit, said that in Ireland transportation is a punishment more dreaded than any other, if carried into immediate execution. As compared with the punishment of death he produced the following fact:—Up to the year 1829 the homicides in Ireland were so numerous that there never was a circuit where there were not about fifty homicides or violent assaults to prosecute. Not meaning regular murders, but what were distinguished in Ireland as fair murders; that is to say, murders in fights, at fairs and markets. In one instance, there were twelve men killed in one fight in Kerry; they were beaten into the river, and as they struggled in the water to get on to the land, the conquering party on the land struck them with stones on the head, and the lives were sacrificed; that was near Listowel. At that time the punishment for the most violent homicide within a shadow of murder was a long imprisonment. These cases would be treated as murder in England, which in Ireland arising out of fights at fairs, though the parties went there with the intention of fighting, were not considered murder; they were all treated as manslaughter. The punishment for assaults was a long imprisonment, according to the nature of the offence, although a most violent assault, if it was such as, though endangering life, or striking off a limb, or fracturing a skull, did not involve previous malice, so as to bring it under the Ellenborough Act. In the year 1829 the punishment was altered, and the Act of that year substituted transportation as the punishment for manslaughter, and for violent assaults. From that period the cessation of manslaughter in Ireland is extraordinary, and the fightings at fairs have gradually subsided, till there is now scarcely an instance of a homicide committed at a fair or at a market. Previously to 1829 there was scarcely a fair at which a homicide was not committed. The reason why the punishment of transportation should create a greater dread than the punishment of death is that the punishment of death is not carried into effect for some time: they are at home; they are taking leave of their families; they have them about them; they have their friends visiting them. Transportation is effectual when carried into instant effect; when a man on being convicted is transported from the dock—not allowed

to go back to the gaol—not allowed to see a friend. At that commission which had such an effect upon Clare, there was not one of the convicts allowed to be removed from the court-house to the gaol; they were all taken from the court-house, tied upon cars, and sent off with the dragoons to Cork. It is important to retain transportation as the punishment for those convicted of public disturbances or of serious agrarian crimes.

Rev. Joseph Kidd Walpole, chaplain of the *Stirling Castle* invalid hulk at Gosport, recommended an extension of transportation to Western Australia by sending out those men convicted of lighter crimes and for the shorter sentences, and urged the importance of an organization for the proper spiritual superintendence of the convicts in the colonies. He believed that recently the ticket-of-leave system has not worked well, and that re-convictions are on the increase. Greater dread is entertained by the majority of criminals of sentences of penal servitude than of transportation. The Falkland Islands might offer another outlet, to a certain extent, for the reception of convicts.

Mr. Mark Loome, Sergeant of the B division of the Metropolitan police, said that prisoners have generally a great horror of the punishment of transportation, and dread it far more than imprisonment in this country. He considers that within the last two years there has been a great increase of thieves in London and that the same is attributable to the ticket-of-leave system. Ticket-of-leave men train up boys and girls as pickpockets. One of them living in Westminster, who has been back four months, has no less than twenty boys and girls of perhaps twelve to sixteen years of age, and one of them is waiting for trial. The great majority of such men, in London, at least, live by dishonest means. It is a frequent practice of released convicts to destroy their tickets-of-leave or not to carry them on their person.

Mr. William Thwaite, Schoolmaster in the hulk *Stirling Castle* at Gosport, thought that the result of the ticket-of-leave system was very favourable as far as he had an opportunity of judging. Three hundred and fourteen prisoners were liberated on tickets-of-leave from the *Stirling Castle* up to the 31st December last. Out of these, twelve were received back with their license revoked. Some men are liberated upon their own showing that they had prospect of employment. When a man is to be set at liberty, he names a person, if he can, who he thinks will give him employment, and a printed form is sent to that person. The person is requested to sign his name, promising employment, or a home, as the case may be, and that has to be attested by the clergyman of the parish or a magistrate; then the officers write to the attesting party, asking whether the party promising employment is in a position to give it, and whether he is respectable; upon the confirmation of which, the man is let out. Persons who have been known as thieves all their lives should not be liberated on a ticket-of-leave. They should undergo their sentence abroad, as they generally relapse into crime. These should be transported. It is different with criminals from rural districts. As regards these, the ticket-of-leave system should be

continued. Mr. Thwaite objected to an undue interference on the part of the police, so that ticket-of-leave men occasionally lose honest employment thereby. Great hardships are borne by ticket-of-leave men through want of employment. He suggested the abolition of the hulk system, which tends to demoralize the men. In the hulks, all discipline is defied, and moral instruction is thrown away. Institutions should be formed by benevolent individuals for furthering employment for liberated convicts who wished to work; and in them instruction should be given in trades, and agricultural labour. From such places emigration might be promoted.

The Honourable Sir Cresswell Cresswell considers that sentences of transportation have a far more deterrent effect upon criminals, and their friends, than any sentences of imprisonment. The punishment of transportation is not more liable to objection on the ground of inequality than any other punishment. Every punishment must, to a certain extent, be discretionary. The 16 & 17 Vict. c. 99, combined with the ticket-of-leave system, has these objections;—1st, It introduces great uncertainty in the punishment, and certainty is one of the elements which always ought to exist with reference to punishment; 2nd, It holds out an immediate worldly benefit to be derived from hypocrisy; and 3rd, When the prisoner goes out he has scarcely any opportunity of getting an honest living or of shaking off his old associations. There is advantage in encouraging the hope of remission of part of the sentence, provided it be certain that a definite portion, and that the greater portion, of the sentence be strictly carried out. Transportation is more likely to effect a reform in the criminal, than any punishment in this country. Two years' imprisonment and hard labour are equal in severity to seven years' transportation.

Mr. Edward Shepherd, Governor of the House of Correction at Wakefield, for the West Riding, had 600 persons under his charge. In the West Riding, the number of ticket-of-leave men is 4 in 1,000 to the number of convicts admitted. In his opinion the Act has not worked well. There is an increasing number of persons coming again to prison having tickets-of-leave. The bad working of the system is also inferred from the vicious character of the offences of licensed convicts: being discharged together, they become associated together in crime. The prison discipline might be so modified as to produce nearly the same effect as transportation as a deterring punishment. Thus the first part of a man's sentence should, as now, be passed in separate confinement; the next part on public works, but in silence; the third, he should have considerable liberty. For this last stage he would have an establishment made in the form of a factory, with every improvement of the age, in which a person should work, and under not much restraint, as in the County Refuge in Wakefield. The ticket-of-leave system has also the effect of inducing offenders to change their names. Punishments are dreaded when they are new. After a time it becomes a habit, and the terrors wear out. But the terror of transportation is greater now than

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ever it was. The intermediate step of penal servitude has made transportation a punishment more dreaded than heretofore.

Police Inspector James Brennan confirmed the evidence as to the general dread of transportation. There is an increasing number of ticket-of-leave men in Clerkenwell, very few of whom obtain or endeavour to obtain honest employment. It would be important to devise means for facilitating the employment of licensed prisoners. It is even worse with licensed females; the generality of them go back to their old haunts and associates again, and take to committing crimes.

The Honourable Sir William Erle was in favour of transportation as a deterring punishment. The object of a sentence is to impress the notion that crime leads to misery, and the execution of the sentence is best when it impresses on the criminal the notion that turning from crime is turning from misery. He doubted that there is any increase of crime through the ticket-of-leave system; and approved of the system with power of revocation.

Sir Richard Mayne, K.C.B., was of opinion that the ticket-of-leave system operated unfavourably. It sends back to society persons who have committed serious crimes without chances of employment. There is an increased number of re-convictions.

Mr. Henry Mayhew gave in some statistics showing that the amount of crime with regard to the population remains stationary. The ratio of criminals to every 10,000 of the people was, in 1834, 15·5; it was 14·1 in the next year; then 14·0, 15·6, 15·1, 15·7, 17·2, 17·4, 19·3, 18·1; making an annual mean for those 10 years of 16·1 in every 10,000 of the people. In the next ten years there were 16·0, 14·4, 14·7, 15·8, 17·4, 15·8, 15·1, 15·5, 15·1, 14·7; giving an annual mean for those ten years of 15·5. The ratio of the number of criminals re-committed in every 100 committed from 1841 to 1851 was 31·3, 29·9, 30·5, 32·4, 33·4, 32·8, 31·3, 29·9, 30·7, 32·0; making an annual mean for the ten years of 31·3. The crimes in which there has been an increase among the usual crimes are those of ferocity and malice, such as arson cases and destructive cases; its increase in ten millions is in the ratio of 21·3, and in the destructive cases 3·4. The habitual cases of ferocity and malice, such as burglary cases, highway robbery, smuggling with arms, and poaching under arms, are 22·6, 54·8, 56·1, 13·4, 87·4. In the third class of crimes—habitual cupidity and temptation—such as the receiving of stolen goods, there is an increase of 60·7. In forgery cases there is an increase of 6·2; in coining cases there is an increase of 123·7. Upon the crimes of evil speaking the increase was 44·1 in 10,000,000. There was a decrease of crimes among the actual cases of ferocity, such as murder, of 7·8; in homicide and assault, of 209·6; in piracy of 3·98; in breach of trusts, of 1·1; in escapes from custody, of ·5; in cattle stealing of 45. On the whole there was an increase on the ratio of 13·2 upon the casual crimes, and a decrease of 116·1 upon the habitual crimes. The large proportion of criminals are from 15 to 25 years old. Such offenders

are difficult of reformation; but on such as are guilty of first offences, the ticket-of-leave system operates beneficially.

The Right Hon. Nicholas Ball, one of the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas, Ireland, considered that transportation is a punishment which can hardly be dispensed with in Ireland. He suggested that the Judge be empowered to pass a sentence of penal servitude for five years, with the understanding that the prisoner may, by good conduct, reduce the term to four years, but not further.

Captain Alexander Maconochie is opposed to sentences of penal servitude on account of the absence of any inducement to good conduct, and considered that neither transportation nor penal servitude had any very deterrent effect. He was in favour of the mark system, as the only true means of determining good conduct with a view to remission.

Baron De Katte described the system of Prussia of punishing secondary offences by employment on public works, and, when in prison, in the manufacture of certain articles which are publicly sold. Corporal punishment is rarely resorted to. There are in Prussia philanthropic societies which have for their object to make criminals lead a better life. They are supported by private subscription, and are under private management.

Right Hon. Lord Campbell lamented the changes effected in secondary punishments by the Act of 1853, and considered transportation the best. He approved of tickets-of-leave rather than of unconditional release, if transportation be impossible.

The Appendix to the Report contains various papers on reformatories and extracts of the state of criminal law in Belgium, Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, Nassau, Baden, the Hanse Towns, Wurtemberg, Sweden, Norway, Portugal, Tuscany, and Russia.

NO. XXXIV.—STAMPS. (COURT OF CHANCERY.) (IRELAND.)

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 14th March, 1856, for Return of the Revenue derived from Stamps on proceedings in the Court of Chancery (Ireland), during the year 1855, specifying the several classes of Stamps, and the amount received in respect of each class. (Mr. Solicitor-General for Ireland.) (173.)

THE amount received was 12,220*l.* 18*s.* 5½*d.*, of which 4,683*l.* 18*s.* was from Summonses, the duty being 13*s.*; 3,573*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* from Certificates at the foot of bills of cost, duty 10*s.* 6*d.*; 1,631*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* Affidavits, foreign duty 2*s.* 6*d.*, &c., &c.

BILLS.

To exempt imprisonments, under the Act 5 Geo. IV., c. 96., from the operation of the Act abolishing in Scotland imprisonment for civil debts of small amount. Brought in by Mr. Crawford and Sir James Fergusson.

To amend the Act of last Session of Parliament for diminishing expense and delay in the administration of criminal justice in certain cases. Brought in by Mr. Deedes and Sir Edward Dering, 7th July, 1856. (226.)

To continue the Act of the second and third years of her Majesty, chapter 74, for preventing the administering and taking of unlawful oaths in Ireland, as amended by an Act of the 11th and 12th years of her Majesty's reign. Brought in by Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland and Mr. Horsman, 7th July, 1856. (227.)

To enable the Grand Jury of Mayo to re-present the arrears of Grand Jury Cess still due to contractors and others. Brought in by Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland and Mr. Horsman, 7th July, 1856. (229.)

For abolishing the Testamentary Jurisdiction of certain Ecclesiastical Courts, and for continuing certain temporary provisions concerning Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction in England, for a limited period. Brought in by Mr. Headlam and Mr. Robert Phillimore, 10th July, 1856. (241.)

To take away from all Archbishops, Bishops, and Ecclesiastical Persons in England and Wales, all power of appointing Judges and Chancellors, and vesting such power in the Lord Chancellor. Brought in by Mr. John George Phillimore, Mr. Watson, and Colonel Freestun, 21st May, 1856. (135.)

To amend the Act 4 Geo. IV., c. 64, for consolidating and amending the Laws relating to the building, repairing, and regulating of certain Gaols and Houses of Correction in England and Wales. Any minister usually officiating in any licensed place of worship may visit prisoners of his own persuasion. Brought in by Mr. Bowyer, Mr. Montagu Chambers, Mr. Hadfield, and Mr. Barnes, 26th May, 1856. (151.)

To facilitate the despatch of business before Grand Juries in England and Wales. Brought in by Mr. Bowyer, Mr. Warren, and Mr. Montagu Chambers, 4th June, 1856. (161.)

For the uniform Administration of Intestate Estates. Brought in by Mr. Locke King and Mr. Headlam, 20th June, 1856. (193.)

To constitute a Court of Appeal in Chancery, and to amend the Laws relating to Appeals from the Encumbered Estates Court in Ireland. Brought in by Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland and Mr. Horsman, 27th June, 1856. (210.)

To amend the Law relating to the Criminal Appropriation of Property held by persons as Trustees or Bailees. Trustees fraudulently misappropriating Trust funds guilty of Misdemeanour. Brought in by Mr. Attorney-General, and Mr. Solicitor-General, 3rd July, 1856. (219.)

To amend the Law of Imprisonment for Debt. Except in certain cases no Process of Arrest to issue. Brought in by Mr. Pellatt and Mr. Hadfield, 11th July, 1856. (247.)

To abolish the office of Cursitor Baron of the Exchequer. Brought in by the Chancellor of the Exchequer and Viscount Palmerston, 15th July, 1856. (253.)

No. XX.—EAST INDIA (ANNEXATION OF BERAR).

*Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 25th February,
1856, for*

Copies or Extracts of the Correspondence which has taken place between the Government of India and the Commissioners of Nagpore relative to the Annexation of the Berar Territory to the British Territory (in continuation of former Returns.) (82.) (Mr. Otway.)

THESE extracts refer to the circumstances which led to the annexation of the Berar territory to the British territory, in the absence of all heirs to the Musnud. They commence with a statement of the settlement of Nagpore affairs, and the provision made for the family of the Raja, and detail the method pursued in the execution of the order of Government introducing British rule into Nagpore. The widow of the late Maharaja protested against the occupation, and pleaded the terms of the treaty with the British Government, stating that there were rightful heirs to the guddee and territory of Nagpore, and complained also of the sale of property at Nagpore, as an alienation of it from the family of the late Maharaja. Applications to that effect were also made by means of certain attorneys and vakeels; but with these the Indian Government would hold no intercourse. The officiating Commissioner having proceeded to the public sale of the Nagpore property, the ladies offered every possible obstruction; in consequence of which the Indian Government directed the Commissioner to acquaint the Ranees and the ladies that the Governor-General in council regarded their proceedings with displeasure. During the removal of the property, however, the opposition became stronger, and some slight disturbance occurred. New protests were meanwhile sent by several princesses. In consequence of the representations of the Commissioner, the Indian Government again caused warnings to be made to the Ranee, and sanctioned the use of a company of regular troops to occupy a position which commanded the palace. The warnings were duly conveyed to the Ranee. The spoliation proceeded regularly, but further delays in giving up the whole of the valuables took place. After having taken all the state jewels and numerous bags of gold, it transpired that a treasure consisting of 20,000 gold mohurs had been concealed, and information of the same was sent to the Government. Instructions were, however, given by the same to the Commissioner that he should on no account use force for the recovery of the gold mohurs. It appears further that her Highness Banka Pozie sent her vakeels or attorneys to London to lay her case before the authorities, but having published some false statements, they were recalled.

No. XXI.—EAST INDIA.

Resolution of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, being the Warrant of Instrument granting a Pension to the Most Honourable the Marquis of Dalhousie, K.T., submitted to the Honourable the House of Commons, in pursuance of the Acts of the 53 Geo. III., c. 155, s. 88, and 55 Geo. III., c. 64. (284.)

At a Court of Directors, held on Friday, the 25th April, 1856.

Resolved by the ballot,—That on a review of the administration of the affairs of India by the Marquis of Dalhousie, K.T., during the eight years of his Lordship's tenure of the office of Governor-General, the Court desire to record their deep sense of the great ability, of the extraordinary zeal, and untiring energy displayed by that nobleman in all departments of the Indian Government.

That the Court desire more particularly to acknowledge the eminent merits of that Statesman, as manifested in the conduct of the war which was forced upon the British authorities by the unprovoked outbreak of the Sikh Sirdars, and their military followers in the Punjab.

In the system of administration framed by him for the territories acquired, a system grounded on the most enlightened principles, incorporating the best improvements in Indian Administration, and which has already produced the most striking results in the increased prosperity of those territories.

In directing the measures taken in the war with Burmah.

In the arrangements made by him for the good government of the territories of Nagpore, after their lapse to the British Government.

In placing the Government of Oude upon a basis calculated to ensure peace and prosperity to the inhabitants of that territory, in which for so long a period anarchy and insecurity of life and property prevailed.

In his measures for the development of the resources of India by the encouragement of Railways, the construction of Public Works, the introduction of the Electric Telegraph, the improvement of the Post Office system, and for the advancement of the Natives of India by extended means of education.

That as a special mark of the sense entertained by the East India Company of the eminent services thus rendered by the Marquis of Dalhousie, an annuity of 5,000*l.*, commencing from the day when he resigned the office of Governor-General, be granted to his Lordship, subject to the sanction of the General Court of Proprietors, and the approbation and confirmation of the Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India.

At a General Court of the East India Company, 14th May, 1856.

Resolved,—That this Court approve the Resolution of the Court of Directors of the 25th ultimo, granting to the Marquis of Dalhousie, K.T., late Governor-General of India, an annuity of 5,000*l.*, upon the grounds therein stated, subject to the confirmation of another General Court.

The same Resolution was confirmed at a General Court of the 21st May; and approved and confirmed by the Commissioners for the Affairs of India, India Board, 5th June, 1856, and signed by R. Vernon Smith.

No. XXII.—EAST INDIA.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 2nd May, 1856, for Copies of all Treaties, Conventions, and Arrangements with the Native States of India, made since the 1st day of May, 1834. (Viscount Goderich.) (341.)

THE following are the principal Treaties in the list:—Perpetual Treaty of Peace by Chiefs of the ARABIAN coast, dated 4th May, 1853; Treaty of Friendship and Alliance with the Nawab of BUHAWULPOOR, dated 22nd February, 1853; Agreement with Toola Ram Seenaputtee, of Upper Cachar, of 3rd November, 1834; Agreement subscribed to by Meer Pretum Singh, of Koomharsaun, HILL STATES, of 22nd June, 1840; Treaty with the Raj Rana, when Jhullawur was formed into a separate Principality; Treaty with the Sultan of ISHANNA for the Suppression of the Slave Trade, of 1844, and of Friendship and Commerce, 3rd June, 1850; Engagement for the Suppression of Suttee, &c., &c.; by Government of KATTEWAR; Treaty with the Meer Nusseer Khan, Chief of KELAT, 14th May, 1854; Proclamation by the Raja of KOLHAPOOR, prohibiting Suttee, 11th March, 1841; Treaty with Maha Rao Ram Sing, of KOTA, 10th August, 1838; Treaty with the KUTCH States, 5th July, 1834, and Engagement against Suttee; Treaty with the State of LAHORE, 9th March, 1846; Treaty of Commerce with the Imaum of MUSCAT, dated 31st May, 1839, and Rules regarding Duties on Cargoes of Vessels putting into his Highness's Ports, August, 1846; Treaty with the NIZAM, 21st May, 1853; Agreement for the Suppression of Infanticide, Pahlunpoor, 15th August, 1853; Agreement with the PERSIAN Government for the Suppression of Slavery, October, 1851; Agreement entered into by Nawab Mohumud Syeed Khan, of RAMPORE; Treaty with the Rajah of SATTARA, 4th September, 1839; Agreement with the Sirdesae of SAWUNT WARREE, 15th September, 1838; Treaty with the Ameer of Meerpoor, SIND, 18th June, 1841; and Treaty with the Maharajah Jyagee Rao SINDIA, 13th January, 1844.

 No. XXIII.—EAST INDIA PENSIONS.

*Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 22nd May, 1856, for Return of the Pensions exceeding 200*l.* a year granted to Governor-Generals and Ex-Governor-Generals by the East India Company, since the passing of the Act 33 George III., c. 52. And similar Return as to gratuities exceeding 600*l.* (Sir Erskine Perry.) (267.)*

THE Marquis Cornwallis, 5,000*l.* per annum, for 20 years. The Marquis Wellesley, 5,000*l.*, for 20 years. Right Hon. Warren Hastings, 4,000*l.*, continuation for life of pension for 28½ years, granted from 24th June, 1785; Sir G. H. Barlow, Bart., 1,500*l.*, from 21st May, 1818, during the

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term of the Company's Charter. The Marquis Wellesley, 5,000*l.*, continued for life. Viscount Hardinge, 5,000*l.*, for life.

The Marquis of Hastings received a gratuity of 60,000*l.*; and the Marquis of Wellesley a gratuity of 20,000*l.*

No. XXIV.—BELIZE.

Return to an Address of the Honourable the House of Commons, dated 11th July, 1856, for

Copy of a Letter addressed by the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, in November, 1836, to S. Coxe, Esq., defining the Boundaries of the British Settlement of Belize. (Mr. Milner Gibson.) (391.)

AN inquiry having been made by Mr. Coxe on behalf of the Eastern Coast of Central America Company as to "what were the boundaries claimed by His Majesty's Government for British Honduras or Belize," Sir George Grey replied that the territory claimed by the British Crown, as belonging to the British settlements in the Bay of Honduras, extends from the River Hondo on the North to the River Sarstoon on the South, and as far West as Garbutt's Falls on the River Belize, and a line parallel to strike on the River Hondo on the North, and the River Sarstoon on the South. The British Crown claims also the waters, islands, and cays lying between the coast defined and the meridian of the easternmost point of Lighthouse Reef.

Sir George Grey also informed Mr. Coxe that the greater part of the territory in question has never been the subject of actual survey, and that parties who should assume the topography of the remoter tracts, and especially the course of the rivers, upon the authority of maps, would in all probability be led into error.

No. XXV.—UNIVERSITY OF QUEBEC.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 12th March, 1856, for Copy of the Charter granted for the purpose of erecting the Seminary of Quebec into an University. (Mr. Meagher.) (158.)

THIS Charter conferred on the Seminary for the education and instruction of youth, known by the title of "Le Seminaire de Quebec," situated in Lower Canada, all the powers and privileges of an university, including the appointment of professors, and the granting of degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor in the several arts and faculties. The Charter is dated 8th December, 1855.

BILLS.

To authorize the West India Relief Commissioners to grant further time for the repayment of moneys advanced by them in certain cases. Brought in by Mr. Wilson and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, May 2, 1856. (121.)

No. XIV.—MEDICAL DEPARTMENT (ARMY.)

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed on the Medical Department of the Army.

[Ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, 3rd July, 1856.]

THE committee nominated consisted of Mr. Stafford, Mr. Bellew, Colonel Boldero, Sir James Fergusson, Sir Henry Davie, Sir John Hanmer, Colonel Kingscote, Mr. Leveson Gower, Captain Laffan, Mr. Legh, Mr. Noel, Colonel North, Mr. Peel, Mr. Percy, and Sir John Trollope.

The witnesses examined were the following :—

His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge, K.G., the Right Honourable the Earl of Cardigan, Major-General Sir Richard Airey, K.C.B., Major-General Lord De Ros, Major-General Sir George Buller, K.C.B., Sir George Augustus Wetherall; Colonel Lord West, Colonel John Douglas, Captain George Bunbury, Sir Benjamin Hawes, K.C.B.; Doctors Andrew Smith, William Henry Burrell, Duncan Menzies, Henry Mapleton, John Robert Hume, William Ord Mackenzie, George Owen Rees, John Wallen Halahan, Sir John Liddell, C.B.; Messrs. Thomas Richardson, James Ranald Martin, F.R.S., Alexander Grant, George Russell Dartnell, William Lindsay, John Aston Bostock, John Agnis, Charles Frederick Maunder, John Jackson; Sergeant William Sheldrake, Sergeant George Simpson, Sergeant Thomas Inkster, Corporal-Major Tomlinson.

The Committee reported as follows :—

1. That the governing power of the Army Medical Department should be vested, as at present, in one individual, and not in a Board.
2. That the Commander-in-Chief should exercise a control over the appointments and promotions of the Director-General.
3. That the principle of general competition, or of special examination, in recognised Medical Schools, be applied, as far as practicable, to admission into the Army Medical Department.
4. That no Medical Officer shall be promoted to be Staff Surgeon of the First Class until he shall have served not less than three years as a Regimental Medical Officer.
5. That the rules which guide promotion be published.
6. That retirement be optional after 21, and compulsory from Regimental and Second Class Staff Surgeon duty after 35 years' service.
7. That facilities be given for the purposes of study in Civil Hospitals, such precautions being taken as will guarantee the period of absence being passed in such study.
8. That the regulation which requires officers of the department to serve two years in the rank to which they have been promoted, upon the pay of their previous rank, be abolished.
9. That the pay of the Army Surgeons and Assistant-Surgeons be increased, as may be determined by the Executive Government; but the

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Committee is in favour of 10s. per diem as the pay of the Assistant-Surgeon on first appointment.

10. That the relative position of medical and combatant officers be not changed, and that the Army Surgeons be not made a more military body than at present.

11. That the system of Confidential Reports should be placed upon the same footing with those relating to combatant officers.

12. That the Committee agree with the recommendation of the Director-General as to leave of absence, honorary distinctions, funeral honours, special services, and relative rank.

13. That as it has been stated to the Committee that the supply of Medical Officers was insufficient during the late war, the establishment of Civil Hospitals may have been necessary; but the Committee trust the recurrence to such alternatives may be avoided for the future.

14. That a person duly qualified to compound medicines, and attested for military service, should form a part of the medical establishment of every regiment; and that those persons should be selected either from the Medical Staff Corps, from the ranks of the regular Army, or from the orphan sons of soldiers educated at the Military Asylum; that they should be regularly trained and educated with a view to the duties to be discharged; and that no one shall be considered eligible for employment until he has given proof, on examination by a board, that he may, with safety to the sick soldier, be entrusted to compound the medicines to be administered to him.

15. That the Medical Staff Corps, which was raised for service during the late war, should continue a part of the Peace Establishment; and that it is desirable it should be recruited from the ranks of the Army, provided volunteers offer in sufficient numbers, possessing the requirements deemed essential to qualify for the particular service on which the corps is to be employed.

16. That the standard of providing clothing and earthenware vessels for eating and drinking at Haslar Hospital be extended to the general hospitals of the Army; that accommodation for sick officers be provided in them; and that a Military Lunatic Asylum be provided, as embraced in the design for the New Military Hospital at Southampton.

17. That the question of hospital stoppages be left to the discretion of the Horse Guards and the War Office.

18. That at the outbreak of any future war, separate transport should be provided for the conveyance of all medical stores; but the Committee leave the minor arrangements of detail to the Executive.

19. The Committee, in the course of its inquiries, have had incidentally brought before them the admirable manner in which the Army and Civil Surgeons have performed their duties in the East, and the Committee are glad to take this opportunity of recording the high opinion they entertain of their merits.

No. XV.—BURIAL ACTS.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords appointed to consider of the Burial Acts.

THE Lords following were named of the Committee:—Lord Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord Privy Seal, Duke of Somerset, Marquess of Bath, Earl of Doncaster, Earl of Shaftesbury, Earl of Portsmouth, Earl Fortescue, Earl Malmesbury, Earl of Lonsdale, Viscount Sydney, Lord Bishop of Rochester, Lord Bishop of St. David's, Lord Bishop of Oxford, Lord Bishop of Salisbury, Lord Bishop of Bath and Wells, Lord Redesdale, and Lord Portman.

The Committee having met and considered the several Acts referred to them, agreed on the following resolutions:—

“ 1. That before the ground is declared fit for consecration, the Burial Board shall, besides the external wall or rail surrounding the whole cemetery, provide a boundary between the consecrated and unconsecrated ground, according to the metes and bounds described in the deed of consecration, to consist of an iron rail, of not less than 3 feet in height, and fitted to bound stones; provided that any other fixed and permanent boundary which the Burial Board may prefer may be adopted, with the sanction of the Bishop.

“ 2. That, to remove doubts, it is expedient to declare and enact, that in any case in which any ground shall be consecrated under any faculty as a family burial-place, no general right to bury in such ground shall be acquired by others than those to whom it is limited in such faculty as the result of such consecration.”

No. XVI.—NATIONAL VACCINE BOARD.

Annual Report of the National Vaccine Establishment, 1856.

[Presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's Command.]

IN the course of the past year, 220,639 charges of lymph have been sent out. The employment of the lymph in the recruiting dépôts and regimental hospitals has been successful, and has protected the British forces from the spread and ravages of the small-pox. The number of vaccinations reported is 128,495, of which 8,637 were performed by the stationary vaccinators in the metropolis. The letters received from correspondents have amounted to 10,539. The employment of vaccination is materially impeded in the colonies, as well as in the mother-country, by the carelessness, the wilful negligence, and prejudices of the poor and ignorant, from which charge some of those in the wealthier classes of society are not wholly exempt.

The report is addressed to Sir George Grey, Bart., and signed by John Ayrton Paris, President of the Royal College of Physicians, William Lawrence, President of the Royal College of Surgeons, W. E. Page, M.D., Censor of the Royal College of Physicians, and C. Hue, M.D., Registrar.

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No. XVII.—LUNATIC ASYLUMS.

Abstracts of Accounts of Moneys received and paid on account of the several County and Borough Asylums in England and Wales during the year ending 31st December, 1855.

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

THESE abstracts of accounts comprise the amount of receipts and payments of thirty-seven lunatic asylums, showing in each case the amount of salaries and wages, provisions, necessaries, clothing, funeral expenses, &c.

No. XVIII.—GREENWICH HOSPITAL.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 12th June, 1856, for Copies of Memorial from the Captains, Commanders, Lieutenants, and Masters of Greenwich Hospital, dated 28th May, 1856, to the Board of Admiralty, and of Letter from Admiral Sir James Gordon, the Governor, which accompanied it; and of the reply thereto. (Captain Scobell.) (301.)

IN this memorial, the Captains and Masters of Greenwich Hospital pray to be permitted to draw their half-pay in the same manner as other officers in civil employment. The answer by Mr. B. Osborne, of the Admiralty, is to the effect that the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty cannot comply with the request.

No. XIX.—SMOKE NUISANCE ACT.

Return to an Address of the House of Lords, dated 11th August, 1855, of all the furnaces existing within the Metropolis before the 20th August, 1853, in any glass or pottery works which were exempt from the provisions of the Smoke Act of that year, and of any additional furnaces erected in such works since that period, together with any report which may have been made by the Commissioners of Police to the Home Secretary. (59. L.)

THE number of furnaces existing before the 20th August, 1853, which were exempted from the provisions of the Smoke Act, was 364, of which 146 were glass, and 218 pottery works. The number of additional furnaces erected since the 20th August, 1853, was 13, viz., 9 glass, and 4 pottery works. No report has been made by the Commissioners of Police as to the manner in which the glass and pottery works were worked, in regard to the consumption of smoke, and as to the extent of nuisance arising therefrom.

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No. XXV.—RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

Return of the Number and Nature of the Accidents and the Injuries to Life and Limb which have occurred on all the Railways open for traffic in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, from the 1st January to the 30th of June, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty, 25th July, 1856.]

FROM the 1st January to the 30th June, 1856, there were in England and Wales, 108 persons killed and 87 injured; in Scotland, 13 persons killed and 16 injured; and in Ireland, 5 killed and 2 injured; total, 126 killed and 105 injured. Of these there were 1 passenger killed and 58 injured from causes beyond their own control; 7 killed and 8 injured from their own misconduct and want of caution; 11 killed and 10 injured servants of companies or of contractors, from causes beyond their own control; and 56 killed and 19 injured of the same, from their own misconduct or want of caution. There were 15 other persons killed and 1 injured in crossing at level crossings; 30 killed and 4 injured trespassers, including 2 cases of suicides, and 6 killed and 5 injured miscellaneous cases.

In the corresponding half-year of 1855, there were 113 persons killed and 158 injured. The length of railway open on the 30th June, 1856, was 8,461 miles; and in 1855, on the same date, 8,118 miles, viz., 6,316 miles in England and Wales, 1,157 miles in Scotland, and 988 miles in Ireland.

In the first half-year of 1856, there was 1 accident arising from a collision between passenger trains, in which 1 person was injured; 16 accidents, collisions between passenger trains and other trains or engines, 3 killed and 49 injured; 1 passenger train, or portion of train, getting off the rails, causing 3 injured; 1 axle, or wheels, or machinery of engines attached to passenger trains breaking or getting out of order, causing 1 killed and 2 injured; 1 axle or wheels of carriages of passenger trains breaking, causing 2 injured; 1 bursting of the boiler of engine of passenger train, causing 2 killed and 4 injured; and 2 trains running into stations at too high a rate of speed, causing 5 injured; total, 6 killed and 66 injured. There were 6 accidents to goods and mineral trains, causing 5 persons killed and 4 injured. Total, 29 accidents, causing 11 persons killed and 70 injured.

The accidents to servants of companies, which have caused 67 persons killed and 29 injured, comprised 6 engine-drivers, 13 firemen, 20 guards and breaksmen, 5 porters, 2 policemen, 3 gatemen and signalmen, 3 switchmen, 13 platelayers, 17 labourers, and 13 miscellaneous.

No. XXVI.—MERCANTILE MARINE FUND.

An Account of the Mercantile Marine Fund, under the Act 17 & 18 Vict. c. 104 & 429, showing the Income and Expenditure for the year 1855.

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

THE total receipts amounted to 258,291*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.* in cash, and exchequer bills 156,000*l.* The total payments, 140,644*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*; balance unappropriated, 117,647*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*

The working expenditure of the fund showed a receipt of 37,875*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.* for fees, on examination of masters and mates, on engagement of crews, on discharge of crews, and on renewal of certificates, &c.; 253,828*l.* light dues received per Trinity House Corporation; 33,050*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.* per Port of Dublin Corporation; 26,349*l.* 9*s.* 3*d.* per Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses; and 42,510*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* ballastage rates received. The expenditure comprised 28,755*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.* salaries and expenses at the shipping offices at the various ports of the United Kingdom, including salaries and fees paid to surveyors of steamships; 214,701*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* expenses paid for the maintenance of lighthouses; and 43,367*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.* expenses paid on the ballastage rates.

No. XXVII.—RAILWAYS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 31st January, 1856, for Return showing for each Railway Company the Amount of Capital and Loan which the Company has been authorized to raise by Acts passed previous to, and in, 1855; the Amount of Share Capital actually paid up on the 31st of December, 1855, &c.; of the Amalgamation of Railway Companies effected during 1855, and the length of each Line for which the powers granted by Parliament for the compulsory purchase of the land required for its construction have been allowed to expire without the exercise of such powers, &c. (Mr. Lowe.) (316.)

THE amount of capital and loan authorized to be raised to December 1854, was 369,348,212*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* Capital and loan authorized by Acts passed in 1855, 9,192,038*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* Total, 378,540,251*l.* 5*s.* 1*d.*, from which there were deductions caused by Acts passed in 1855, 3,568,285*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Total to December 1855, 374,971,965*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.* The amount raised by shares and on loan to December 1855 was 297,584,709*l.* In 1855, there was raised, 11,515,915*l.* Up to the 31st December, 1855, the powers have expired for the construction of railways of the length of 2,414 miles out of 3,334 miles which were authorized to be constructed by Acts of Parliament.

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No. XXVIII.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) in the Two Months ended 30th June and 31st July, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.					CLEARED OUTWARDS.				
Countries.	June.		July.		Countries.	June.		July.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	1,420	389,733	2,089	560,013	United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	2,208	498,196	2,455	568,459
Russia . . .	15	3,008	17	3,695	Russia . . .	5	878	14	3,027
Sweden . . .	46	9,331	78	12,148	Sweden . . .	45	8,299	63	10,602
Norway . . .	138	21,667	332	68,141	Norway . . .	128	19,926	159	24,434
Denmark . . .	142	13,283	260	22,558	Denmark . . .	228	19,474	240	21,403
Prussia . . .	50	10,701	135	31,351	Prussia . . .	145	35,145	104	23,921
Other German States . . .	166	22,081	264	38,377	Other German States . . .	206	25,682	275	37,607
Holland . . .	93	12,045	129	17,693	Holland . . .	107	16,730	111	17,149
Belgium . . .	17	4,089	20	4,699	Belgium . . .	27	6,393	25	5,763
France . . .	68	3,443	74	4,544	France . . .	361	33,120	401	36,525
Spain . . .	23	4,094	26	4,318	Spain . . .	24	3,935	23	5,147
Portugal . . .	10	1,800	4	759	Portugal . . .	13	2,206	12	2,189
Italian States . . .	13	3,770	28	7,933	Italian States . . .	21	6,000	27	7,643
Other European States . . .	5	1,167	10	2,582	Other European States . . .	7	2,739	4	848
United States of America . . .	129	131,216	166	158,611	United States of America . . .	146	134,168	165	160,997
Other States in America, Africa or Asia . . .	4	1,309	2	970	Other States in America, Africa or Asia . . .	4	966	3	979
Total . . .	2,339	632,737	3,634	938,392	Total . . .	3,675	813,847	4,081	926,693

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various countries, during the Two Months ended 30th June and 31st July, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.

Countries.	June.		July.		Countries.	June.		July.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British Possessions, in North America . . .	100	48,912	344	172,523	Brought forward . . .	1,821	378,816	2,882	635,815
East Indies . . .	77	57,398	62	47,663	Italian States . . .	56	14,093	153	29,408
Australia . . .	14	9,338	23	13,568	Turkish Dominions . . .	31	8,831	73	17,713
All other Parts . . .	270	48,561	298	52,741	Wallachia and Moldavia . . .	14	2,742	79	13,957
Russia . . .	131	24,558	402	73,253	Other European States . . .	34	6,482	40	8,594
Sweden . . .	72	12,970	231	45,601	Egypt . . .	28	9,925	35	12,909
Norway . . .	105	15,780	187	28,352	United States . . .	149	145,876	171	158,166
Denmark . . .	104	9,989	177	17,605	Mexico, Foreign West Indies, & Central America . . .	76	25,955	79	26,460
Prussia . . .	164	26,795	260	43,072	Brazil . . .	20	5,920	24	6,922
Other German States . . .	168	30,857	184	33,145	Other States in America, Africa and Asia . . .	110	34,097	98	28,448
Holland . . .	155	30,117	200	37,391					
Belgium . . .	67	13,492	86	15,327					
France . . .	292	35,636	298	36,655					
Spain . . .	63	7,659	90	11,360					
Portugal . . .	39	6,754	40	7,559					
Carried forward . . .	1,821	378,816	2,882	635,815	Total . . .	2,339	632,737	3,634	938,392

Note.—"Transports" with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return. [91]

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Countries.	June.		July.		Countries.	June.		July.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British Possessions, in					Brought forward	3,243	607,082	3,555	664,206
North America	64	30,368	77	42,468	Italian States	85	20,311	111	29,805
East Indies	67	55,080	77	55,257	Turkish Dominions	34	12,637	33	10,872
Australia	45	34,374	53	41,403	Wallachia and Moldavia	5	716	3	516
All other Parts	625	135,472	301	70,063	Other European States	14	3,528	13	3,701
Russia	121	22,956	269	52,903	Egypt	33	10,994	45	16,297
Sweden	75	13,408	86	14,260	United States	117	106,152	132	131,140
Norway	115	17,943	120	14,976	Mexico, Foreign West Indies, & Central America	46	17,014	48	17,996
Denmark	264	25,623	327	36,614	Brazil	29	9,847	38	14,274
Prussia	200	41,197	154	26,673	Other States in America, Africa and Asia	69	25,566	103	37,886
Other German States	352	57,484	533	95,934					
Holland	251	41,171	268	49,957					
Belgium	110	18,257	100	17,043					
France	810	92,115	981	114,481					
Spain	83	12,317	152	23,490					
Portugal	61	9,317	57	8,684					
Carried forward	3,243	607,082	3,555	664,206	Total	3,675	813,847	4,081	926,693

Note.—“Transports” with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return.

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing British and Foreign (employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, and otherwise), Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes at Ports in the United Kingdom, during the Month ended 30th June, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.			CLEARED OUTWARDS.		
Vessels.	June.		Vessels.	June.	
	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland :			Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland :		
British	877	158,652	British	1,865	228,564
Foreign	3	340	Foreign	—	—
Other Coasting Vessels :			Other Coasting Vessels :		
British	10,789	918,694	British	11,000	898,539
Foreign	16	2,110	Foreign	8	1,390
Total { British	11,666	1,072,346	Total { British	12,865	1,127,103
Foreign	19	2,450	Foreign	8	1,390
Total	11,685	1,074,796	Total	12,873	1,128,493

No. XXV.—KING'S COLLEGE, ABERDEEN.

Return of the Books purchased with the Compensation Grant by the University and King's College, Aberdeen, during the years 1841, 1848, and 1853, with the Prices annexed; also Returns of the amount of Money expended for Books by King's College, Aberdeen, with Compensation Grant during the period from 1838 to 1854 inclusive. (Mr. Thompson.) (239.)

No return of books purchased was given for 1841, in consequence of the Lords of the Treasury having at that time suspended the payment of the grant.

In 1848, books were purchased to the amount of 315*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.*, leaving a balance against compensation grant of 90*l.* 14*s.*

In 1853, books were purchased to the amount of 321*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, leaving a balance of 133*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.* against compensation grant.

From September 1838 to 20th August, 1855, books were bought for 5,842*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*, against 5,760*l.* received from the Treasury. The balance, 82*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*, together with 374*l.* 15*s.* for binding, repairing, &c., 197*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* in the bank, and 38*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*—in all, 629*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.*—form the excess of expenditure beyond the sum received from the Treasury.

No. XXVI.—ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSION (IRELAND).

Report of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners of Ireland, for the year ending the 1st day of August, 1855.

[*Presented in pursuance to Act 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 37, s. 10.*]

DURING the year, the Commissioners have appropriated the sum of 36,305*l.* 12*s.* to church works. The assistance derived from private contributions amounted to 11,175*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*, great liberality having been evinced in some instances. The number of churches for which grants for repairs have been made is 1,076.

Seventy-four benefices have become vacant within the year, consisting of sixteen dignities and prebends, and fifty-eight parochial benefices; of these, twenty-one appear to be subject to the ecclesiastical tax imposed by the Church Temporalities Acts. A further annual sum of 359*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* has been allocated for augmentation purposes, from the tithes unappropriated from dignities amongst twenty-seven small benefices. The Commissioners have paid 8,930*l.* 9*s.* 3*d.* to the incumbents who were heretofore entitled to receive minister's money charged on houses in the several parishes within the city of Dublin and other corporate towns in Ireland. Twenty-three applications had been received for the purchase of perpetuities; the sum realized was 247*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.* The account of receipts and expenditure shows a total receipt for the year of 131,482*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.*, and a total expenditure of

50 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

131,230*l*. 2*s*. 1*d*. The balance in the bank on the 1st August, 1854, was 10,333*l*. 12*s*. 3*d*. ; and on 31st July, 1855, 10,585*l*. 17*s*. 6*d*.

The report is signed by the Commissioners, and addressed to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

NO. XXVII.—BISHOPS OF LONDON AND DURHAM.

Return to an Address of the House of Lords, dated 17th July, 1856, for Copies of all Correspondence which has passed between Her Majesty's Government and the Lords Bishops of London and Durham, touching the resignation by them of their Sees. (259. L.)

THE Bishop of London, on the 18th June, 1856, communicated to Viscount Palmerston, that on account of continued illness, if allowed by law, he was disposed to resign the Bishopric of London, upon being secured the enjoyment, during his life, of a clear annuity of six thousand pounds.

The Bishop of Durham, on the 21st June, 1856, wrote a similar letter, in consequence of the great failure of his sight, and other infirmities, asking the retiring annual allowance of 4,500*l*.

To both bishops, Viscount Palmerston answered that he would take steps to carry their wishes into effect.

NO. XXVIII.—CHURCHES AND SCHOOLS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 8th May, 1856, for Return of all Sums which have been granted by any Public Department of the Government, within the last ten years, in aid of the Erection of Churches or Schools, or have been expended by such Departments for such purposes, stating in each case the particulars, namely—the Locality and Date, and the Amount of the Sum granted or expended. (Marquis of Blandford.) (387.)

THE sum granted by the Commissioners for building new churches, from the 7th April, 1846, to 8th April, 1856, was 47,179*l*. 3*s*. 11*d*. The sum granted by the War Department for churches, 1,600*l*. ; the Ordnance Department donations for churches, 835*l*.—for schools, 1,050*l*.—and subscriptions to schools, 310*l*. The amount granted by the Department of Woods and Forests in aid of the erection of new churches, 4,170*l*. 4*s*. 11*d*. ; and in aid of the restoration or repair of existing churches, 1,166*l*. 1*s*. 11*d*. The amount granted by the Customs Department towards building new, and repairing churches, 721*l*. 6*s*.

No. XXIX.—CHURCHES.

The Thirty-sixth Annual Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners for building new Churches.

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

HER Majesty's Commissioners, in their last report, stated that 597 churches had been completed, in which accommodation had been provided for 584,155 persons, including 350,349 free seats, for the use of the poor. Since then 18 churches have been added, for 14,963 persons, including 7,290 free seats; making in the whole 615 churches, having provision for 599,118 persons, including 357,639 free seats. Twenty-one churches are now in the course of erection; and the Commissioners have approved of plans for 16 churches to be built.

Since the last report, applications for further church accommodation have been made by the parishes of Bangor, population 9,564, for church accommodation for 842; Blackburn, &c., 84,889, for 16,600; Darfield &c., 7,672, for 1,933; Halifax, 150,000, for 23,692; Hampstead, 11,986, for 2,600; Islington, 7,604, for 1,840; Kingswinford, 27,301, for 6,239; Liverpool, 270,000, for 40,000; Llanelly, 13,516, for 1,400; Llangyfelach, 11,239, for 943; Manchester, 400,000, for 60,000; Meols, North, Birkdale, 12,000, for 2,813; Peterborough, 8,211, for 2,450; Shoreditch, 31,627, for 2,995; Snenton, 8,440, for 1,232; Wakefield, 33,123, for 2,637; Wigan, 63,287, for 7,832.

 No. XXX.—CRIMINOUS CLERKS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 1st April, 1856, for Return of cases concerning the correction of Criminous Clerks in Holy Orders, in which Commissions have issued in England and Ireland, from 1st January, 1846, to 1st January, 1856. (Mr. Robert Phillimore.) (411.)

At the Arches Court of Canterbury in the last ten years there were 15 cases, of which 5 were for intoxication; 2 for cursing and swearing, brawling and mutiny; 2 for holding two benefices, with cure of souls, without dispensation; 2 for preaching without license; 1 for refusing to bury a corpse after notice and warning given; 1 for preaching in Long-acre Chapel; and several other cases for insobriety and immorality.

At the Appellate Court of York there have been five cases for drunkenness and immoral conduct.

In Ireland there were no cases, except in 1842, when a suit was instituted against the Rev. Henry Stewart, in the county of Down and Connor, for refusing to administer the Lord's Supper to Mr. Crommelin, not having got notice from him of his intention to become a communicant. Mr. Stewart was condemned in the costs of suit, and monition served on him by the Lord Bishop to restrain him from pursuing such conduct in future.

52 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

No. XXXI.—CATHEDRAL AND COLLEGIATE CHURCHES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 2nd June, 1856, for Return from the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England of every payment made to them since the 20th day of January, 1855, on account of any suspended stalls in the Cathedral and Collegiate Churches of England and Wales. (Mr. William Ewart.) (307.)

THE total amount paid to the Commissioners on account of suspended stalls in the Cathedral Churches since the 20th January, 1855, was 66,038*l.* 3*s.*: of which Windsor paid 12,155*l.* 13*s.* 9*d.*; Westminster, 9,849*l.* 6*s.*; Durham, 9,109*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*; Winchester, 6,789*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*; Worcester, 6,231*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*; Canterbury, 4,906*l.* 11*s.*, &c., &c.

No. XXXII.—EDUCATION.

Copy of a Minute by the Lords Committee on Education, of Her Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council, dated 26th January, 1856.

[Presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's Command.]

THE Minute extended the application of the Minute of 2nd April, 1853, for the support (by Capitation Grants) of Schools in the agricultural districts and unincorporated towns (not containing more than 5,000 inhabitants), to all parts, urban as well as rural, of England and Wales.

BILLS.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

To make further provision for rendering Reformatory and Industrial Schools, in Scotland, more available for the benefit of Vagrant Children. Brought in by Mr. Dunlop and Mr. Kinnaid, 19th February, 1856. (42.)

For transferring the powers of the Church Building Commissioners to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England. Brought in by Sir George Grey and Viscount Palmerston, 19th June, 1856. (185.)

To extend the provisions of an Act of the Eighth and Ninth Years of Her present Majesty for enabling Her Majesty to endow new Colleges for the advancement of learning in Ireland; Medical Students of Queen's Colleges in Belfast, Cork, and Galway, to have access to Workhouse Hospitals. Brought in by Mr. Horsman and Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland, 23rd June, 1856. (197.)

To give to Colleges in the University of Oxford power to sell and to exchange lands under certain conditions. Brought in by Lord Robert Cecil and Mr. Mowbray, 27th June, 1856. (207.)

To continue the Act to facilitate the management and improvement of Episcopal and Capitular Estates. Prepared by Sir George Grey and Mr. Massey, 9th July, 1856. (235.)

No. LXII.—MASTERS AND OPERATIVES.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the expediency of establishing Equitable Tribunals for the amicable adjustment of differences between Masters and Operatives.

THE Committee consisted of Mr. Mackinnon, Mr. Lowe, Viscount Goderich, Mr. Ingham, Viscount Duncan, Mr. Cobbett, Mr. Booker Blakemore, Mr. Kinnaird, Mr. Pellatt, Mr. Leveson Gower, Mr. Wise, Mr. Gordon, Mr. Pollard Urquhart, Sir Henry Halford, and Lord John Manners.

The Committee reported as follows :—

Your Committee have examined a great number of witnesses of different positions in life, with a view of obtaining as much information as possible concerning the subject of inquiry referred to them for investigation. A considerable majority of these witnesses concur in expressing themselves in favour of the establishment of Boards of Arbitration between Masters and Workmen; but on examining their evidence, it will be found that they differ as to the constitution of the proposed Boards, and still more as to their jurisdiction.

Before considering their evidence, or making any suggestion thereon, your Committee would wish to call the attention of the House to the existing law on the subject of arbitration.

By Statute 5 George IV., c. 96, disputes relating to past contracts arising between masters and workmen, may be settled and adjusted by arbitration. The matter to be settled either summarily by a justice of the peace, or, if that is not agreed to, by referees appointed by such justice, and if the referees do not agree, then definitively by the justice of the peace. And by the 13th section, in all such cases as aforesaid, as in all other cases of dispute, if the parties mutually agree that the matter in dispute shall be arbitrated and determined on in a different mode to the one thereby prescribed, such agreement shall be valid, and the award and determination thereon final and conclusive between the parties, and powers are given to enforce such award.

This Act appears to be nearly inoperative; hardly any one, whether master or workman, ever resorts to it, and its existence is unknown to many people.

The following constitute the principal causes assigned by the witnesses whom your Committee have examined, for the failure of this Act :—

1st. That there exists great unwillingness to go before a magistrate, as bearing some appearance of a criminal proceeding.

2nd. That the arbitrators being appointed as each case arises, it is not known beforehand who they will be, and there is reluctance to refer a dispute to the decision of an unknown set of men.

3rd. That the workmen object to magistrates in manufacturing districts, inasmuch as they are generally manufacturers, or else in some way connected with manufacturers.

To obviate these objections, it has been proposed to establish in the various manufacturing districts Courts of Conciliation, similar to the *Conseils de Prud'hommes* which exist in France. It is not necessary to give here any detailed description of these institutions, as two accounts of them have been furnished, one by the Board of Trade, and another by Sir Henry Halford, a member of your Committee, both of which accounts are appended to the evidence. A member of your Committee, Lord Goderich, has also given, and the Chancellor of the French Legation in London has furnished, valuable evidence respecting the successful working of these institutions. Your Committee would, however, point out that these *Conseils* have no power to adjudicate with respect to future contracts.

Several attempts have been made in this country to establish systems of arbitration, without the intervention of law. They are said to have been successful as long as they lasted, but have been generally of short duration. A system of arbitration now established in the potteries works well, and is deserving of consideration. It has lasted three years, and a desire is there felt that it should receive legal sanction, which it is thought would secure its continuance.

It is proposed by some of the witnesses to extend the jurisdiction of any Courts of Conciliation that may in this country be established beyond that of the *Conseils de Prud'hommes* in France, or that recognised by the Arbitration Acts in England. These witnesses consider that either party to a dispute as to the terms of a future contract should be entitled to have it adjudicated upon by these Courts, and that although their decision should not be legally binding, yet, being published, its moral effect would, in most cases, ensure a compliance with it. Some witnesses expressed a desire that these Courts should have power to regulate the rate of wages.

The employers who have given evidence before your Committee have differed in opinion as to the propriety of establishing tribunals of this kind; some of them, as Mr. W. E. Forster, thinking that they would, in most cases, be productive of more evil than good; others, as Mr. M. D. Hollands, being strongly in favour of their establishment.

From the evidence before them, your Committee cannot but arrive at the conclusion, that the attention of the Legislature might with advantage be directed to the subject of this inquiry, and are of opinion that the formation of Courts of Conciliation in the country, more particularly in the large commercial and manufacturing and mining districts, would be beneficial. Your Committee would suggest that such a measure might be introduced as an amendment in the present Arbitration Act, by a reconstruction of that Act in the 10th and 13th sections, by which means both masters and operatives would be enabled, each from their own class or calling, to appoint referees, an equal number by each party, having power to elect a chairman unconnected with either side having a casting vote. Such a tribunal to be appointed for a certain period, and not for any particular controversy.

In addition to the above suggestions, your Committee are of opinion that it would be desirable, in order to give greater permanence and force to such Boards of Arbitration as those above alluded to as having been formed in the potteries and other trades and districts, that authority should be given to the Secretary of State, on application being made to him, to license Boards of this description, and that immediately on such license being granted to any such Board, it should be invested with power to decide all questions relating to existing contracts which might be brought before it, and to enforce its decisions.

Your Committee are, however, of opinion that it would be impossible to give these or any other tribunals any power whatever of forcibly regulating the rate of wages, although advantages might frequently arise, even in disputes on that subject, from the existence in the district of a Board of Arbitration chosen from among the masters and workmen in the trade in which such dispute might occur, as, in the opinion of your Committee, both parties would frequently be willing in that case voluntarily to refer the question to the decision of such a Board.

8th July, 1856.

The following were the witnesses examined:—Mr. Thomas Winters, Corresponding Secretary of the National Association of United Trades for the Protection of Industry; Mr. Edward Humphries, Member of Committee of the same Association; Mr. Guildford Lindsay Molesworth, civil engineer; Mr. Robt. Essery, Secretary of a Tailors' Trade Society; Mr. Wm. Felkin, manufacturer of hosiery and lace at Nottingham; Mr. John Andrews, carpet-weaver; Mr. William Edward Forster, worsted-spinner and manufacturer; Mr. Sidney Smith, solicitor, Secretary of the Liberal Registration Association of London; Mr. Thomas Murray Gladstone, engineer; Mr. William Newton, engineer; Mr. John Howshan, Spitalfields silk-weaver; Mr. James Pillans Wilson, Superintendent of Price's Candle Manufactory; Mr. George Ferdinand, Spitalfields silk-weaver; Mr. Sam. Higginbotham, solicitor, Macclesfield; Mr. Charles McDonald, silk-weaver, Macclesfield; Mr. Robert Aglionby Slaney, late M.P.; Mr. Thomas Joseph Dunning, bookbinder; Mr. John Ferdinando, silk trader; Mr. John Hammill, police magistrate, Worship-street; Mr. Macgill Daintree Hollands, manufacturer of earthenware and china; Mr. William Maitland, potter; Mr. Joseph Avent, journeyman compositor; Mr. Charles Rose, silk-weaver; Sir Henry Halford, Bart., M.P.; Viscount Goderich, M.P.; Mr. John Chambers Proudfoot, joiner; Mr. Hugh Lees, Secretary of the Associated Cotton Spinners of Scotland.

The following are the principal points on which evidence was given.

ORIGIN OF STRIKES.

Strikes are caused by difference of wages, by the regulation of the hours of labour, and often by the determination of the masters that the men must

not belong to any societies like the National Association. The varying arrangements and agreements now entered into between employer and employed are also the causes of many disputes. Thus some agreements are by the piece; some by the week; some are for long jobs, and some are of this description: the master says, "I will give you the same that other people are giving in the town for a certain time," or "I will give you the same that other men in this manufacture receive;" and in other cases the sums are specified upon the agreement; some workmen are dismissible upon a week's notice, and some upon a month's notice. Agreements vary from a week to four or five years. When the quality is not as was expected by the master, then a reduction is demanded on the wages.

Strikes are not produced by a few agitators—the strike precedes the agitation. Nor is it the custom of one trade in striking to call upon other trades to follow its example. Wages are the chief cause of strikes, but the causes are very numerous. Often it occurs from machinery being employed in processes before done by hand. Foreigners coming amongst the operatives have sometimes caused strikes. These strikes are entered upon by workmen with great reluctance. In some cases the clubs have forced them to strike, even against their will. Nor is it resolved on at once. Sometimes the prospects of a strike come on for months beforehand. The original cause is generally very slight; it gradually increases into a difference or into a strike, and when things are pushed to extremities, neither party gains, and the matter is settled by a compromise at the end. Considered as a question of supply and demand for labour, Mr. W. E. Forster said: "In the labour market, if we take the question upon the general principle of supply and demand, the labour-seller would, when wages get brisk, ask for an advance; but his asking for an advance is not a demand which he may think very likely to be attended to unless he is in a position to refuse to sell unless he gets it; and in order to do that, he feels it necessary to have the power of combining with his fellows."

Strikes which occur for wages do so in consequence either of a reduction being offered by the employers, or a claim for a higher rate of wages being made by the workmen. If the employer wishes to reduce the wages of the workmen, he generally proposes to do it upon the whole of the workmen throughout the establishment; and the consequence is, that the whole of the workmen are joined together for the purpose of resisting it, and that leads to a strike. The employer does not deal with the workmen individually, and not dealing with them individually throws them into a state of combination, which causes them to resist the proposed reduction in a body.

On the appearance of the notice, the first thing done by the men is to call a meeting of their own body to ascertain whether the reduction should be conceded or not; if they decide on resisting it, they do so in a body, and the result is a strike. The master seldom if ever consults the workmen previous to putting out that notice. The first intimation they have of the

reduction of wages is by the notice being affixed in the manufactory. Strikes are never produced by the difficulty of settling an individual's wages. It is only when those wages are fixed, and there has been a disposition on the part of the employer to lower the whole of the wages so much per cent., or a desire on the part of the workmen to have their wages raised so much per cent., and there has been a general dispute, that a strike has resulted. Strikes arise also when wages are lowered in consequence of competition among men, the employers taking advantage of it for obtaining work done for so much less than the settled wages. Supply and demand affect the rate of wages more than anything else; and in times of hardship the owners take advantage of the dearth of demand to reduce the wages and keep them reduced afterwards, when the demand increases. Strikes generally take place in periods of prosperity, when the men know that they have a good guarantee at their backs of being supported by their friends in the country.

INJURIOUS EFFECTS OF STRIKES.

Strikes are injurious to the workmen themselves as well as to the masters. In 1853 the salt trade of Cheshire had a dispute in which more than 1,000 persons were concerned. It was happily settled by a conference of the masters and workmen. Had the conference not taken place, there would have been a stoppage of the whole of the flats, and all the salt works in the neighbourhood; and, as a matter of course, the detention of the merchant vessels lying at Liverpool. "The fearful amount of physical suffering that I have witnessed" (said Mr. J. Ferdinando) "among the workmen in order to gain their point, has really been of the most shocking character. I have seen, in the depth of winter, the very stove pulled out of the fire-place by the weaver to sell it, in order to procure food, so that they might continue their strike; and from information that has been given to me by persons who have been on strikes, the Preston operatives, and the typefounders and many others, it really does appear that the workmen will endure any amount of physical suffering; in fact, I have seen stout, strong, healthy men reduced to mere skeletons rather than be defeated upon the point that they had struck upon. In the strike of 1841 there was a fearful amount of suffering. It was a very hard winter. I know full well that the operatives sold well nigh everything that they possessed before they gave way to the masters." Strikes are also injurious to the towns in which they take place, especially to the small tradesmen of the town; in fact, they bring ruin and bankruptcy upon scores of people that have nothing to do with the strike. A strike in a trade that is depending in a great measure for its material upon another trade will injure both the trades. Take the potting trade: a strike among the miners, with which the potters have nothing, or could not have anything whatever to do, would throw out of employment, if the strike was protracted, the whole of the

potters in that district, inasmuch as large quantities of coal are consumed in potting industry; and any failing of the potting trade by the stoppage of the supply of coals, would necessarily throw out the whole of those parties, although they had nothing whatever to do with the strike in one shape or another. But even in the trade itself, one branch leaving their work on strike would have a very great tendency to throw out the whole of the men engaged in the trade, because they work into one another's hands. So that they cannot proceed unless the whole are at work; it is a sort of clock-work—if one wheel gets out of order, the whole stops.

In the potting trade, one branch would throw out five or six and twenty others; perhaps there are more than that. There are thirty different processes through which the article passes before it comes into the market; each employing a different branch of the trade so distinct from the others, that men who have served their time to one, cannot do the work of the others. If the miners in the Staffordshire potteries chose to cease labour, there would be 10,000 people thrown out of employment in the potting branch alone. In that district a strike would not be so bad as formerly, because they have a railway, and they might bring coals by that. But that at least would be the effect of a strike in the collieries, in throwing out of employment that large number of people, and the calculation is perhaps considerably under the mark.

The men suffer during these strikes. If they gain their point they generally suffer more from it than they would have suffered if they had not struck. In Mr. Molesworth's opinion strikes do good in preventing wages falling very low; they keep the masters in check. The ironmasters had a strong objection to give an increase of wages to their men; yet having heard of a strike in their neighbourhood, they have given that increase. It is of the greatest importance to both master and men to avoid strikes, but even more to the master, because the men are supported during the strike. If it is a very large strike, there is levied 1s. a man upon all the workmen in the trade, and two men are sent to the scene of the strike, who, with the proceeds, pay the men their weekly wages. Strikes lead to incalculable loss both to employers and employed; and not only to the particular parties immediately concerned, but also to the nation. A great amount of money is thereby prevented from circulating during a strike. The labour and products of a nation are *primâ facie* the sources of its wealth; and when any part of that labour or produce ceases to exist or be produced, a loss of wealth is the consequence. The number of strikes has increased of late years, but of late they are more temperate, and the combinations of workmen have been conducted in a more legitimate manner.

THE PRESTON STRIKE.

The Preston strike of 1853 originated on a demand by the men of a uniform advance of ten per cent. on the wages paid in 1847, and of the

equalization of standard list of prices. By the end of October 1853, 17,000 workpeople in Preston were thrown out of employ, and their joint wages, probably not less than 10,000*l.* weekly, were withdrawn from circulation among the retail dealers of the town. This strike caused a loss of 520,000*l.* to the operatives. The losses were calculated by Mr. Winters as follows:—In Preston and the neighbourhood there were 61 mills closed, of 2,400 horse-power; 1,000,000 spindles, producing 800,000 lbs. weekly of 32*s.* yarn; and 20,000 looms, suspending a production equal to 90,000 pieces of India shirtings, 8½ lbs. each. The number of hands out of work was 25,000; their average weekly earnings, when employed, were 12,000*l.* At Wigan and Hindley there were 25 mills closed, of 1,300 horse-power, 400,000 spindles, and 1,800 looms. The number of hands out of work were 7,500, and their weekly earnings were 2,000*l.* At Burnley and Padiham there were 58 mills closed, of 2,300 horse-power, 510,086 spindles, and 12,067 looms. The hands out of work were 12,000; their weekly earnings were 5,800*l.* At Bacup there were 36 mills closed, of 1,400 horse-power, 300,000 spindles, 8,000 looms. The persons out of work were 8,600; and their weekly earnings were 5,000*l.* In addition to Bolton and Bury, Newtownheath and Manchester, and some other places of smaller moment, the sum total of the mills closed was 180, the number of looms thrown out of work was 42,867, the number of persons out of work was 53,100, and the loss of weekly wages was 24,800*l.* At Preston the strike continued for 35 weeks; the money cost of that strike was 100,000*l.*, and the loss of wages, at the rate calculated above, was 420,000*l.*; making a total loss of 520,000*l.* at Preston during that time.*

* The following is the estimate given in the report of the Central Association of Master Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers; on the accuracy of which we may, therefore, safely rely:—

Capital sunk in the establishments of the associated manufacturers of Preston	£1,000,000	
Estimated trading loss to the employers	£50,000	
Loss by depreciation, interest, and other contingencies, for thirty-six weeks	67,000	
Unavoidable expenses in wages, fuel, and other items, during the strike	28,000	
Loss in working machinery without adequate number, and with inferior description of hands	20,000	165,000
Loss of wages to the operatives during the strike		250,000
Loss to the contributors to the Strike Fund, whose contributions have become abortive by its failure:—		
Blackburn...	30,000	
Stockport	10,000	
Preston.....	7,000	
Ashton, Hyde, Glossop, and Stalybridge	10,500	
Over Darwen	4,000	
All other places and trades	35,500	97,000
Carried forward		£512,000

There is a strike now in Lanarkshire among the miners. The reason is that the employers have offered a reduction of wages to the extent of 1s. a day. The number on strike now is variously given from 20,000 to 30,000.

Brought forward	£512,000
Estimated loss of profits to shopkeepers and innkeepers	11,250
Estimated loss to carriers, railway companies, dressers, sizers, mechanics, and other auxiliary occupations	10,000
	<hr/> 21,250
Total loss to the community by the Preston Strike	<hr/> £533,250

Among the moral results of the strike there are some of an unexpected character. In a communication by the Rev. J. Clay, Chaplain to the Preston Gaol, that well-known and philanthropic gentleman says:—"The effect of the strike on committals to prison, has been similar to that which I have always noticed whenever a check has been given to the full employment of our operatives. The 'stoppage' and 'short-time' in 1847-8, by throwing many hundreds of boys into idleness, produced a great increase of juvenile crime, but a yet greater *decrease* in the summary committals of adults. The idleness compelled by the strike has again been followed by the same results. The committals to the sessions from Preston during the six months of the strike, or from November 1st, 1853, to April 30th, 1854, and of *male* offenders only, amounted to seventy-eight. In the corresponding six months of the preceding year, the same class of committals amounted to sixty, and in the six months immediately preceding the strike they were only forty. On the other hand, while idleness paved the way for dishonesty among many boys and some men, deprivation of the means of indulging to excess in liquor led to a great decrease of the disorder and vice punished by *summary conviction*. Committals of this kind, during the six months of the strike, amounted to eighty-seven; in the six months immediately preceding, they were one hundred and fifty-seven. From authentic returns with which I have been favoured, I find that, during the six months of the strike, a falling off in the consumption of spirits and beer took place to the extent of more than four thousand gallons of the former, and more than five thousand three hundred barrels of the latter. The diminished expenditure, therefore, in these crime-generating articles, has been about 1,000*l.* weekly, a fact which sufficiently accounts for the decrease of nearly fifty per cent. in the summary convictions for drunkenness, assaults, and other similar offences." It appears, also, from Mr. Clay's letter, that the scarcity of money produced by the strike had its effect on the condition of that unhappy section of the female population who live upon the wages of infamy, compelling some, we would hope, to abandon their wretched course, but inducing others to look for a livelihood to theft as a more profitable species of vice. At the same time, during the strike, and in consequence of the habits of idleness superinduced by it, many a poor factory girl was drawn from the path of virtue, to which, in all probability, she will never return. If it were not for an apprehension of rendering these pages unnecessarily repulsive, we could adduce several painful facts confirmatory of this statement. Only a few days since, the body of a female child was accidentally discovered in a deep part of the Ribble, known as the "Stone Delph," the mother of which, it was ascertained, is a young woman residing in the neighbourhood, previous to the strike an honest factory girl, but now living by prostitution. Still, a few such cases, melancholy as they are, do not give us an adequate view of the immoral results of the strike. We see its worst consequences in the spirit of enmity which has been kindled in the breasts of the working classes towards their employers; in the revival of well-nigh extinct jealousies; in the strengthened influence of pernicious prejudices; in the creation of new grudges.

SILK TRADE.

In the silk trade, the strikes have uniformly been for obtaining an increase of wages. In 1773, there was a general strike of all the trade which was caused by the amount of competition that existed, and the general distress which prevailed among the workman; this strike lasted, on and off, for nearly three years, and called the attention of the Government to it. In 1827 a strike again took place which lasted five or six weeks, after which the masters conceded to the workmen what they asked. In 1829 there was another which lasted two months; and then a meeting took place and an agreement was entered into. In 1841 another strike took place; from twenty to twenty-five manufacturers were willing to pay additional 2*d.* or 3*d.* per yard on velvet; but three or four of them stood out, and the whole trade suffered in consequence. The operatives in the silk trade are in a most distressed condition. There were in 1824, 25,000 persons engaged in the trade; now there are only 7,000 or 8,000 in London; but they are extended into the country. A man must work hard, and be a skilled workman, to get 10*s.* a week. The average wages in the trade are 6*s.*, 7*s.*, and 8*s.* a week, according to the various branches of trade. The wages have gone down considerably; more than half in

The following are specimens of the literature of the strike:—

Hymn sung at the opening of the monster meetings on Sundays, to the tune of the "Old Hundredth Psalm."

"Assembled 'neath thy broad, blue sky,
To Thee, O God! thy children cry;
Thy needy creatures on Thee call,
For Thou art great, and good to all.

"Thy bounty smiles on every side,
And no good thing hast Thou denied;
But men of wealth, and men of power,
Like locusts, all Thy gifts devour.

"Awake! ye sons of toil, nor sleep
While millions starve, while millions weep;
Demand your rights! let tyrants see
You are resolved that you 'll be free!"

Popular song entitled "The Holiday."

"The fields they are green, and fragrant
are the flowers,
And the birds sweetly warble their
notes;
These things we'll enjoy, while we keep
our holiday,
'Twill be pleasanter than unweaving
floats.

"We have spirit, though we're poor; we've
pride, although a mob,
We wish for the honour of our town;
Yet we'll wander far and wide, whatever
may betide,
Aye! CADGE, too, before we'll knuckle
down!"

*The Wigan Strike and the Ten per cent., and
"No Surrender."*

"Come all you lads of Lancashire,
And ladies, too, I pray draw near,
And listen with attentive ear,
It's something for to please you;
You are all aware, I mak' no doubt,
From east to west, from north to south,
That every trade is turning out,
For an advance of wages.

CHORUS.

"Hurrah! my boys, be not content,
The masters we will make relent;
Until we gain the 'ten per cent,'
The cry is 'No Surrender.'"

On the Preston Strike. A Paper, by Henry Ashworth, Esq., F.R.S., read before the statistical section of the British Association, at its meeting, held in Liverpool, September, 1854.

twenty years. The competition met with is in the country manufactories; and through the lowness of the wages that are paid, men are forced to work from five o'clock in the morning to eleven at night, Sunday included. The weavers of Spitalfields get so low wages that they are tempted to work on Sunday; but there is such a strain upon the physical powers and the mental faculties in the trade that they would give way if they were so employed. The weavers do not like to go to church: they have no clothes to put on. The workmen have no alternative but to take the master's offer of wages or to starve. Unfortunately the poor law is very hard in Bethnal-green and Spitalfields. If a man throws himself upon the parish, he is put to stone-breaking and picking oakum. The silk weavers are obliged to keep their hands clean, and their hands must be smooth; if a man is put to stone-breaking and oakum-picking, it is impossible that after he has been at that kind of employ he can work upon silk. So that a strike is even preferable to being submitted to the poor law provisions. French and foreign silks do not come at present greatly into competition with the Spitalfields manufactures. The silk goods that come from France, have to a great extent superseded the manufactures of Spitalfields. The competition was very keen some years ago, after the repeal of the prohibition law, and ultimately the old-fashioned trade of Spitalfields, which consisted of light fancy articles, passed away, being superseded by the French articles. A new order of trade sprung up; such, for instance, as low velvets and parasols, which is now the staple trade of Spitalfields. In Macclesfield, in consequence of a disastrous turn-out between the masters and the men, a board was formed to adjust a series of tariffs as to the prices to be paid for the various fabrics manufactured in the silk trade. These prices were adhered to for a limited time, and although they are not universally followed, the labour has not been in vain, inasmuch as the very publication of these prices has been a considerable advantage to the trade generally. The board consisted of twelve masters and twelve workmen, and a chairman. These twelve manufacturers employed together about 3,000 men.

TAILORS' TRADE.

A tailors' trade society exists at the west-end of London, comprising 2,136 persons: its working is as follows:—If a man feels himself aggrieved, if his wages have been reduced, or if he has been insulted by the foreman, or discharged without any just cause, he applies to the society, and states his case on the first meeting night; they then investigate the matter, and appoint a deputation from the society, who wait upon the employer; if they succeed in settling the matter satisfactorily, so much the better; if, on the contrary, they do not succeed, the result is reported to the society on the following week; it is then sent to a general committee of the trade, who in their turn investigate the case and appoint a deputation to wait upon the employer; if they succeed in their attempt, the workmen are

satisfied; if they do not succeed, a strike is the result. It may be a strike in the particular shop; but if the dispute involved a general question, of course it would involve the union generally. The standard wages among tailors is 36s. a week, but they seldom get such wages. The trade is in a constant state of depression. At Messrs. Nicoll's establishment, for pilot cloth capes, bound all round the bottom with braid, the wages are 6s.; they take two days each to make; a Witney coat double-stitched all round, 10s. and each one takes three days' hard work. The average wages are 3s. a day, though they are always calculated upon the estimate of 6s. a day.

POTTERIES.

In the Potteries, the trade being almost entirely dependent upon hard labour, manufacturers engage their workpeople for twelve months under a form of agreement. In this agreement, a clause of arbitration is inserted, and a Board of Arbitration has been formed for the purpose by the Chamber of Commerce at Stoke-upon-Trent, consisting of three masters and three workmen, each party electing its own representatives. The decisions of this board have given general satisfaction. The average wages in the Pottery districts are something like 20s. a week; the china workers are better paid than the earthenware workers are. In the agreement now used between the potters and their employers there is a want of mutuality; a man is not allowed to give notice to leave his situation, although he can mend it, if the manufacturer can find him four days' work in the week; he must find him sixteen days' work in the month, and if he does so, the man is not allowed to better his condition; whereas the master only binds himself to the man at four days a week, while he hires the man for six days if he want him. It would be better, and it would prevent future strikes, were each party to give a month's notice without any qualification whatever, when they are tired of each other from any cause. A man will not leave a good master if he is doing well, and the master will not turn off a good servant; but when they are tired of each other, a month's notice should be sufficient in either case to terminate the agreement.

One source of dispute in the trade arises from a loss incurred by the workman in a department over which he considers he has no control. The rule of the trade is to work what is termed "good from oven"—that is to say, the man is not paid for work which he has made, until it has been fired; when it comes out of the oven it is all examined, and the bad is put on one side, for which he receives no wages. The question is as to the loss arising in the oven—whether it was a loss arising from the fault of the fireman, or whether it was a loss arising from bad work; it is almost impossible, however clever a foreman may be, to detect what will be bad out of the oven before it goes in. The "good from oven" system was first brought into operation with respect to the common clay, because there was none other used at the time the practice commenced. At first the commonest clay only was subject to the "good from oven" test; that would be in the

early age of potting. The china clay, and the stone clay, which are more brittle, were not subjected to the test of "good from oven" for a great number of years. In short, the stone clay has not been subjected to the test generally until within these last fifteen or sixteen years—that is, in some cases; neither were coloured bodies. Everything was free from the principle of "good from oven" but the commonest material that was manufactured. At the time of the adoption of this principle, it was no hardship at all; but hardships have crept in with improvements in the material, and it has since become such a grievance that it has caused endless differences and disputes, and has done a great deal of mischief which never would have occurred had it not been for the carrying out of its details. If the system of "good from hand" were adopted, the best thing that could be done would be to appoint a competent person to examine the work, and he would be at once able to detect whether the workman has sent a piece of work, or wished to send a piece of work, into the oven that would turn out bad. In the potteries there are about 45,000 workmen, including women and children.

PRINTERS.

A council for the arbitration of disputes was established on the 7th January, 1856, between the master printers and the workmen compositors in London. Although the rules agreed on have not been put into operation as yet, the arrangement which has existed for many years works very beneficially. Besides the duty of arbitration, the Compositors' Association undertake payment to men out of employment, so that it is a sort of benefit society. The person demanding the arbitration, and losing the case, pays the expenses of it. A barrister is usually appointed to act as chairman, and he is paid by the day. There is, besides, a trade committee, which meet every week to settle matters of disputes that come before them. The compositors in the country work both at press and at case—they both print and compose; in London, each abides by one thing only. There is a body of pressmen, a body of machinemen, and a body of compositors. There are over 4,000 compositors in London.

HOSIERY TRADE.

The framework-knitters get very low wages. They are distributed over the villages in the districts of Leicestershire, and their earning are 5s. 6d. per week. The deductions made for the frame-rent are very oppressive. There is no hiring; it is not a hiring in the ordinary sense of the word. A man goes, say on the Monday morning, to take the frame; he takes it as a man would take a house, and he expects to continue for the whole of the week; but the master on the second week, when he goes on the Monday, says, "I have not got any work for you to-day, you had better

come again on Tuesday;" and on Tuesday he says, "You had better come on the Wednesday." The man may say, "I will work for myself;" but the master will say, "Oh no, you cannot do that; I shall not allow anybody else's work to be made on my frame." This is unjust, because the man will neither find him work nor allow him to find it himself, and then takes the full rent and all the other expenses of the machine. Besides, the evil is, that there is no direct communication between the manufacturer and the workman. There is another person who interferes, called the middleman, who may have eight or ten frames from the manufacturer, and five or six of his own, which he rents at 6*d.* or 8*d.* a week, and charges 1*s.* 6*d.* a week. He distributes the work given out for the ten frames among the sixteen or eighteen, and charges the whole rent upon the frames, and therefore he is compelled to give the men less work than they could do. The men are aware of that liability, but they must submit to it; they have tried to withstand it by turning out, and by making representations to the manufacturers, and in various other modes, but without success. The guardians and other officers of unions have tried to show the manufacturers that it would be their interest to employ the workmen directly, and to bring them together in manufactories, and in some cases that has been done; every one feels the present system to be an evil. Where manufacturers have put men together in factories, and have abolished the system of hiring frames, it has increased the wages of the workmen nearly one-half. These deductions from wages are less objectionable in Nottinghamshire than in Leicestershire, simply by a difference in the customs of the localities.

The rent amounts generally (and is pretty uniform in Leicestershire) to about 1*s.* a week upon each frame; the value of the frames in many instances is exceedingly small. "Without having recourse to evidence at all," said Sir H. Halford, Bart., "I can speak from my own observation of what happens, as I live in a village where the trade is carried on. It is not more than about ten days ago that I went into the house of one of the framework-knitters, an old and very respectable man, and found him at work upon a frame. He told me he had worked upon the frame forty years, and he had paid 1*s.* a week for it, and he thought the value of it might be about 1*l.*; so that he had paid, if he did not pay for two weeks in the year at Easter and Whitsuntide, 50*s.* a year for a thing the value of which was not more than 1*l.* The man being a respectable man, I should have been exceedingly glad if I could have relieved him from such a system as that, by purchasing the frame for him; but he said, 'That would be of no use; I should get no employ if you did that.'"

ENGINEERS.

An association of Operative Engineers was formed in 1851. This society was made up of a number of societies which had existed before. There

is also an union of Employers. The Amalgamated Society has for its object the question of wages; but it is also a benefit society. If a member is out of employment, he receives at the rate of 20*l.* a year; and if he is sick, he receives 20*l.* a year during his sickness; and after the age of fifty is entitled to a superannuation allowance of 5*s.* per week for the rest of his life. During last year the society has spent 11,000*l.* in maintaining men who were out of work through the slackness of work, and 5,000*l.* for maintaining men who were out of work from sickness. Their expenses have been 23,000*l.* altogether during the year; and they have a fund of 37,000*l.* The Amalgamated Society of Operative Engineers in 1851 demanded the abolition of overtime and of piecework. A strike in consequence ensued, when the men held out for thirty-six weeks, but the society failed to carry out their demand.

JOINERS.

Among the joiners, there were two strikes in Glasgow—one in 1854, when there were 1,200 men idle for ten days, and was caused by the employers refusing to allow the workmen to reduce their hours of labour from sixty to fifty-seven hours per week. In 1855, another strike took place for the same cause. The joiners are now paid for fifty-seven hours the same as they had received for sixty hours. They receive 5*d.* and one-nineteenth per hour: to obviate the difficulty arising from the one-nineteenth part of a penny, an agreement was made that whenever a workman worked the full fifty-seven hours a week he was to be paid 24*s.*, but whenever the man worked less than that, he was only to be paid at the rate of 5*d.* per hour for the hours that he worked. There are trades' unions among the joiners, constituted by particular individuals of the trade by payment of 1*d.* or 2*d.* per week. In the boiler-makers' society, in case of any accident occurring to any of their members by which they are prevented from following their employment in future, they are entitled to receive a bonus of 60*l.*, or 12*s.* a week. A man upon strike gets from the joiners' association 10*s.* a week.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF UNITED TRADES FOR THE PROTECTION OF INDUSTRY.

The National Association consists of 5,000 to 6,000 persons, representing members in different trades dispersed over different parts of the country. It was established on the 25th March, 1845. Its objects are—

1st. "To secure for each member, as far as practicable, a fair compensation for their industry, ingenuity, and skill; or, as it is more generally understood, 'a fair day's wage for a fair day's work.'"

2nd. "To settle by arbitration and mediation all disputes arising between members, and between members and their employers.

3rd. "To secure to each member the whole of his wages, without

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deductions, under any pretext; and to enforce all payments to be made in the current coin of the realm, and not otherwise.

4th. "To employ members at their respective trades whenever practicable, who are thrown out of employment in consequence of resisting reductions of wages, or other acts injurious to their interests.

5th. "To regulate as far as possible the hours of labour, with a view to equalize and diffuse employment among the working classes, so that some shall not be over-worked, while others may be starving for want of employment.

6th. "To promote legislative reform in all laws that relate to the industrial, educational, sanitary and social progress of the people; to prevent abuses, and to procure the repeal of unequal laws between masters and workmen, and capital and labour.

7th. "To promote the establishment of Local Boards of Trade or Courts of Conciliation and Arbitration, for the purpose of adjusting disputes between employer and employed, empowering them to make by-laws, rules, and regulations, and to take cognisance of all questions affecting the interests of labour and trade.

8th. "To urge upon Parliament the expediency of appointing a Minister of Labour, whose duty it should be to direct and control all Commissions of Inquiry affecting the industrial and social condition of the people, and under whose authority the various enactments affecting the employer and employed should be carried into execution.

9th. "To secure properly lighted and ventilated workshops, and other sanitary arrangements for the prevention of premature disease and death of the members, and other physical evils which attach to various kinds of labour."

It is further agreed that "In all cases of dispute, either between members of the association or members and their employers, whether it be a question of wages, hours of labour, or otherwise, it shall be necessary for every branch or member thereof interested, to submit his or their case, with full particulars, to the Executive Committee, before taking any other steps whatever, in order that the rule relating to mediation and arbitration may be brought into practice."

Rule 67 states that "Any member or members giving notice to leave his or their work under any circumstances, without the previous sanction of the Executive Committee, shall not be entitled to any pecuniary assistance from the General Fund."

In case of any dispute between the master and workman, no matter what the dispute may be, first of all, before they give any notice or anything of that sort to leave their employment, it is their duty to report the case to the committee; the committee upon that report proceed directly to the employers and state to the employers the objects of their visit, the nature of their complaint, if it is a complaint, or of the request on the part of the workmen, and express a hope that they shall be able to form some tribunal

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to settle this matter by arbitration. If the master himself at the time urges anything in his own defence which is considered as a good reason why the workman's claim should not be admitted, as a matter of course the committee adopt it, and they have done so in many instances.

The committee is appointed once a year on Whit-Monday, or some day in Whitsun-week in each year; the committee are appointed by the members; every officer goes out of office once a year, and they are re-elected or somebody else is placed in their stead. The committee consists of three besides the president, but each local society of trades has a committee besides. In 1848 there were many disputes in different parts of the country. In that year there were disputes in the following trades:—The blanket-weavers, block-printers, blast furnace men, bleachers, bricklayers, brush-makers, bone button makers, crate-makers, carpet-weavers, cotton-spinners, chair-makers, coopers, curriers, framework-knitters, gun-makers, hearth-rug makers, hatters, horse-nail makers, iron-tin spoon makers, joiners, locksmiths, lace-makers, miners, mule spinners, nailors, paper-makers, paper-stainers, plumbers, power-loom weavers, piecers and spinners, shipwrights, silk-pickers, self-acting menders, shoemakers, salt-rock miners, salt-boilers, silk-winders, skimmers, tin-plate workers, type-founders, twist-bleachers, wool-combers, and other classes of hand-loom weavers; altogether, in that year, there were forty-three different trades and ninety-eight cases brought before the committee; seventy-four of those cases were against the reduction of wages; sixteen were caused by the masters demanding the men to leave the society; and eight were against violations of the truck-law.

Each member of the Association fixes his own contribution. If a man earn 10s. a week, or 1*l.*, or 1*l.* 10s., he can say that he earns 10s. a week, and then he will pay 1*d.* a week, for which he receives 6s. a week in case of strike, and 9s. if he pays 1½*d.* It is an assurance society. The workmen in connection with the society are bound to submit their disputes with the masters to their arbitration. Some instances were given in evidence of the operation of the Association in reconciling disputes between masters and operatives, and in preventing strikes through means of arbitration, such as in the dispute about wages in the salt trade in Cheshire in 1853.

CONSEIL DE PRUD'HOMMES.

The following communication from M. Dufour, of Lyons, was presented to the Committee by Viscount Goderich, M.P.:—

The "Conseil de Prud'hommes," established in 1806, is one of the most perfect and most useful institutions of the Empire; at Lyons, especially, they have rendered, and render every day, immense services; their action has powerfully contributed to the maintenance of the good relations which exist between our workmen and our manufacturers, in spite of the sanguinary conflicts and the political hatreds which have so often afflicted our country, and especially our city. When one considers the simple

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mechanism and the beneficial action of those tribunals, it is difficult to comprehend why they have not been adopted in all the manufacturing towns of Europe long ago; they are especially necessary, indeed I may say indispensable, in places in which branches of industry exist which are not carried on in great factories; in such places, for instance, as Spitalfields and Coventry. The tribunal of "Prud'hommes" is even more useful to working men in their relations to each other, and with their apprentices, than in their relations with the manufacturers, who, generally speaking, make it a point of honour never to appear before this tribunal, preferring to give in rather than do so, even in cases where they are sure to gain their cause. For the workman, as for the manufacturer, it is a bad thing that it should be known that he often goes before the "Prud'hommes." These conseils, which are true tribunals of peace, conciliate infinitely more causes than they judge. The simple fact that a "Conseil de Prud'hommes" exists in a town, makes masters, workmen, foremen, and the parents of apprentices restrain themselves, and respect themselves more, and make more easily mutual concessions to each other, which they would not make but under the influence of the fear or the hope which the conseil causes. The chair of the conseil is of right occupied by a manufacturer; but far from this being a disadvantage to the workmen, it is in their favour, as his position of manufacturer always leads the president to incline to the side of the workman when he is in doubt. The functions of the president require a devotion which is above all praise; for, although gratuitous, they take up the whole of his time and attention. The "Conseil de Prud'hommes" of the city of Lyons, as it was instituted by the original decree of 1806, is composed as follows:—Section of Silk—nine manufacturers, eight foremen or workmen; Gilding—three manufacturers, two foremen or workmen; Lace—two manufacturers, two foremen or workmen; Hat-making—three manufacturers, two foremen or workmen. There is a secretary-in-chief, and a second secretary, and an usher attached to the conseil. The workmen "Prud'hommes" alone receive pay from the commune; their salary at Lyons is 1,000 francs a year for those of the sections of silk, which are the most occupied, and 500 francs for the other sections. The jurisdiction of the "Conseil de Prud'hommes" extends over all disputes which can arise between manufacturers and workmen, masters and apprentices, and generally between all the professions which belong to the branches of industry represented in the conseil. The conseil decides finally up to the sum of 100 francs; above that sum there is an appeal to the Tribunal of Commerce, the Court of Appeal and of Cassation. The conseil holds three public sittings in the week at six in the evening, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; the two sittings on Monday and Friday are sittings of conciliation held by one manufacturer "Prud'homme," as president, and two foremen or workmen; that of Wednesday, consisting of one-third at least of the members of the conseil, alone gives judgment. The president holds sittings three times a week at

the office, in which he gives consultations, regulates the proceedings, and advises as to the requirements of the trade, and his advice often prevents an action. The conseil receives at its office the deposit of patterns of new inventions, of which the inventor intends to reserve the property to himself.

The number of causes tried in 1846 was 5,007; in 1847, 4,677; in 1848, 2,267; in 1849, 2,245; in 1850, 2,880; and in 1851, 3,078. As to the details of these causes, taking one year as an instance, say 1846, the year in which there were 5,007 causes tried, 2,004 of them were between masters and foremen, or middle-men; 1,301 were between middle-men and workmen; 1,252 were between masters and apprentices; 450 were between masters and "divideuses;" 4,884 related to the silk trade; 89 to lace; 20 to gilding; and 14 to hat-making. In all those cases the number of judgments out of 5,007 was only 96; the number conciliated was 4,911; the number of factories or shops put under surveillance (of which we shall have something to say presently) was 180; the number of reports required from surgeons with regard to apprentices or workmen was 90; then there were 365 patterns deposited at the office of the conseil, and there were 621 causes which are described by arbitration.

The following is the form in which persons are invited to appear before the conseil: it is excessively civil:—"Monsieur — is invited to appear in person before the 'Conseil de Prud'hommes,' sitting at Lyons, in the Hall of Henry the Fourth, in the Hôtel de Ville, for the purpose of conciliating himself with Monsieur — upon the matters which divide them." Next a person called an "expert" is summoned to attend to assist the conseil with his advice upon a matter of calculation, or any other matter upon which the conseil do not feel competent themselves to decide. A letter from the "Conseil de Prud'hommes" is also sent to the mayor of a distant commune, requesting him to see a master and an apprentice who have had a dispute, and to endeavour to bring them together. Information is then transmitted to the party that by the decision of the conseil, held at a given date, he is condemned to pay a certain sum, and that the conseil further orders that this sum shall be inscribed upon the livrés of the workman, which he is obliged by law to keep, adding what will be the consequences if he does not obey the decision of the conseil.

As to the cost of these causes, a summons costs 30 centimes, or threepence; for every document which is delivered by the secretary, and which contains 20 lines in a page, and 10 syllables in a line, 40 centimes, or fourpence, must be paid; for a copy of the "Procès Verbal," which states that the parties have not been able to be reconciled, 80 centimes, or eightpence; for a copy of the "Procès Verbal" of the deposit of a design, or of a manufacturer's mark, 3 francs; to the usher of the conseil for each summons, 1 franc 25 centimes; for a stamp, 1 franc 5 centimes; for registration, 55 centimes, making a total of 2 francs 85 centimes as the sum paid to the usher; for serving notice of a judgment, 1 franc 75

centimes; the judgments are registered gratis, when the sum adjudged does not exceed 25 francs. In general the costs are very small; and the Conseil of Lyons, which adjudged or reconciled 5,007 cases in 1846, has obtained this result without a greater expense than 500 francs. Monsieur Dufour adds, the costs of the judgment of 96 causes, and of the conciliation of 4,911, is not more than 20*l*. sterling. From the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1852, the Conseil de Prud'hommes at Lyons held 153 public sittings, in which 3,728 causes were called on. From the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1853, the conseil held 153 public sittings, in which there were called on 4,813 cases. They are thus divided:—Between masters and foremen in 1852, 1,502; in 1853, 4,416; between foremen and workmen in 1852, 1,023; in 1853, 1,530; between foremen and apprentices in 1852, 931; in 1853, 1,302; between foremen and divideuses in 1852, 2,932; and in 1853, 565, making the totals given above, viz., 3,728, 4,813. The “Bureau Particulier” (which holds the sittings for conciliation on the two days of the week which have been referred to) has conciliated 2,580 causes in 1852, and 2,961 in 1853; 448 causes in 1852, and 855 in 1853, were withdrawn before the “Bureau Particulier” had given its decision. In 1852, 700 causes, and in 1853, 997 causes were carried before the “Bureau Général.” Out of the number of 700 causes in 1852, 645 were withdrawn before judgment; 25 were judged finally; and 30 were judged subject to appeal. So that there were only 55 judgments registered. In 1853, out of 997 causes, 920 were withdrawn before judgment; 51 were decided finally, and 26 subject to appeal; consequently there have only been 77 judgments registered in that year. Those judgments are thus divided:—Between masters and masters (they appear to deal with those disputes also), three in 1852, and one in 1853. Between masters and foremen in 1852, 3; and in 1853, 3. Between foremen and divideuses in 1852, 5; and in 1853, 5. Between foremen and workmen in 1852, 7; and in 1853, 5. Between foremen and apprentices in 1852, 37; and in 1853, 63; making a total in 1852, of 55; and in 1853, of 77. The disputes reconciled by the method of arbitration in the year 1852, were 394; and in 1853, 645. 217 “surveillances d'atelier” in 1852, and 320 in 1853, have been exercised by the “Prud'hommes”; 127 contracts of apprenticeship in 1852, and 250 in 1853, have been annulled on account either of insubordination or incapacity on the part of the apprentices, or on account of want of care on the part of the masters; 230 patterns have been deposited at the office of the “Conseil de Prud'hommes” in 1852, and 232 in 1853. The conseil in 1852 was called upon to pronounce upon three cases of piracy of designs; no case of this kind occurred in 1853. In his private audiences, either at the office or at his own house, the president of the conseil has given advice in more than 2,500 cases, which generally has led to the termination of the difficulties, without their being brought before the conseil. During the year 1852, two

commencements of strikes took place, which, however, had no serious consequences; that of the velvet-makers, and that of the lace-makers. Thanks to the intervention of the conseil, they were promptly terminated, and mutual and reciprocal concessions put an end to a state of things which was injurious to the interest of all. The "ouvriers apprêteurs d'étoffes de soie," relying upon the dispositions of the decree of the 9th of September, 1848, have addressed to the public authority a petition, which has been transmitted to the president. The new regulation adopted in accordance with his orders has fulfilled all the requirements of the case, and while reserving to the foremen the possibility of satisfying the requirements of others, has regulated the hours of the labour of the workmen within the limits fixed by the law.

The following is a sketch of the history of the "Conseils de Prud'hommes": The first "Conseil de Prud'hommes" was established in Lyons, by the law of the 18th March, 1806, in which also power was given to the Government to establish others in other towns. By this law the conseil was composed of five manufacturers and four overlookers. The next important decree on the subject is that of the 11th July, 1809, by which the conseils were to be composed on the same principle as the Lyons Conseil, but by which it was determined that the members should be elected by the whole body of manufacturers and overlookers in the town. The next decree is that of the 3rd of August, 1810, which somewhat extends the powers of the conseils. By these, and some less important decrees, the purposes for which the "Conseils de Prud'hommes" were established were the following:—

1. The conciliation of all minor differences between manufacturers, foremen, workmen, journeymen, and apprentices.
2. The judicial decision, final as to all values up to 4*l.*, and with appeal for any higher sums, of all differences which cannot be put an end to by conciliation.
3. The ascertainment of offences against the laws and regulations which affect industry.
4. The preservation (by deposit and registration, for instance) of the right of property in designs.
5. The settlement of accounts between traders and foremen.
6. The preservation of order in workshops, with power to imprison for three days at most.
7. The collection of certain statistical details with respect to industry.

From this time the number of these conseils were gradually increased, and their powers enlarged; but in 1848 their composition and organization were greatly changed, and a fresh law of 1853 has since further altered them. The law of 1806 is this: "The 'Conseil de Prud'hommes' is established for the purpose of putting an end, by conciliatory means, to the minor differences which arise daily either between manufacturers and workmen, or between overlookers and those who work under them, or their apprentices. It is also authorized to decide judicially to the amount of 60 francs, without forms, or legal expenses, or appeal, those disputes which it may have been unable to terminate by conciliatory means. The conseil was also charged with the maintenance of the rights of inventors." Then the

decree of the 11th July, 1809, says, "The Conseil" shall take cognisance of "all causes which it shall have been found impossible to arrange amicably, whatever may be the amount of the sum in dispute." Then by the decree of 1810, "The 'Conseils de Prud'hommes' are authorized to adjudicate on all disputes which may arise between manufacturers, middle-men, overlookers, workmen, and apprentices, whatever may be the amount of the sum in dispute; but of course that does not mean that they are to decide finally. "The judgments shall be final, and without appeal, if the whole sum to be paid by the condemned party does not exceed 100 francs; above that sum, they shall be subject to appeal." The next law upon the subject is the decree of the 27th of May, 1848, which enacts that, "The number of workmen (of the town) shall be called together separately by the préfet, to proceed to elect in their respective classes a number of candidates equal to three times the number of members to be chosen. Eight days afterwards the masters shall elect from the workmen candidates, the workmen members, and the workmen shall elect" from the master candidates, "the same number of master members. All the masters, middle-men, foremen, workmen, and journeymen of twenty-one years of age, who have resided for six months at least within the jurisdiction of the 'Conseil de Prud'hommes,' are electors. The same persons, aged twenty-five years, and having one year at least of residence, are eligible; foreigners, bankrupts, and every person who has been condemned for dishonesty or crime, cannot be either electors or elected. The Conseil is presided over alternately three months by a master, and three months by a workman; the master presidents being chosen by the workmen members, the workmen presidents by the master members." Next comes the law of 1853; the conseils now consist of an equal number of masters and of workmen, elected each by and from his own class, and presided over by a president and vice-president, nominated by the Government. The electors are,—1. All manufacturers of twenty-five years of age who have been patentés for five years, three of which must have been passed within the district for which they are elected: 2. All workmen of twenty-five years of age, who have exercised their trade for five years, and resided three in the district. All electors of thirty years old who can read and write are eligible."

MANUFACTURES, &c., IN WHICH LARGE BODIES OF MEN ARE EMPLOYED.

METALS.	Felt Manufactures.	VARIOUS.
*Engineers.	*Flax.	Plate Glass.
*Machinists.	*Cotton.	*Hardware Manufacturers.
Chain and Anchor Works.	*Silk.	Wood Converting Works.
Tin Plate Workers.	Velvet.	*Saw Mills.
*Smiths.	*Carpet.	*Wheelwrights.
*Turners.	Worsted.	Musical Instrument Makers.
*Foundries.	Tape.	Button Manufactures.
Iron Bedstead Makers.	*Weaving (various).	Potteries.
*Coppersmiths.	*Hosiery and Lace.	*Flour Mills.
*Brass Founders.	Muslin.	*Coopers.
*Wire Workers.	Wadding.	Curriers.
*Steel Refiners.	Hat Manufactures.	Rope Makers.
Bronzists.	Millboard.	Statuaries & Marble Works.
*Iron Ship Builders.	*Paper Manufactures.	Paint Manufactures.
*Cutlers.	*Papier Maché.	Sail Makers.
File Cutters.		*Ship Riggers.
Type Founders.	CHEMICAL AND OTHERS.	*Stoneware Drain Makers.
Nail Manufactories.	*Alkali Works.	
Steel Pen ditto.	*Acetic Acid.	TRADES.
Pewterers.	*Vitriol.	*Masons.
Plumbers.	*White Lead Works.	*Sawyers.
*Corrugated Iron Works.	*Various Chemical Works.	*Bricklayers.
Brass Tubes.	*Alum Works.	*Carpenters and Joiners.
Galvanized Iron Works.	*Brewers.	*Slaters.
*Iron Works (Rails, &c.)	*Glass Works.	*Cabinet Makers.
*Zinc Works.	Gutta Percha.	*Plasterers.
*Millwrights.	*Candle Makers.	
*Pins and Needles.	*Gas Works.	MINES.
Saw Makers.	Gunpowder Mills.	*Collieries.
	Distillers.	*Salt Mines.
STUFFS & TEXTILE FABRICS, &c.	Cement Works.	*Ironstone.
Braid, Fringe, and Tassels.	Lime Burners.	*Copper.
Floor Cloth Manufactories.	*Soap Works.	*Lead and others.
*Flannel ditto.	Whiting Manufactures.	LABOURERS.
*Cloth ditto.	Starch.	*Agricultural.
Waterproof Fabrics.	*Sugar Refiners.	*Railway.
*Fustian.	Chocolate.	*Canal.
Tanners.	Glue.	*Engine Drivers.
Dyers.	Oil Mills.	*Brickmakers.
Drysalters.	Naphtha Works.	*Carriers.
*Calenderers.	Size Manufactures.	*Bargemen.
*Calico Printers.	Salt.	Slate Works.
*Bleachers.	Mustard.	*Quarrymen.
*Ribbon Manufactures.	Pitch, Tar, and Rosin.	Wellsinkers.
	Asphalte.	Paviors.

Note.—The asterisks * denote those which are most affected by strikes or disputes.

MANUFACTURES, &c., IN WHICH THE NUMBER OF WORKMEN IS COMPARATIVELY SMALL.

Britannia Metal.	Gold Beaters.	Japanners.
Buckle Manufacture.	Locksmiths and Bellhangers.	Pocket Book Manufactures.
Hook and Eye ditto.	Metal Perforators.	Tarpaulin and Tent Makers.
Musical Instruments.	Refiners.	Veneer Works.
Silversmiths.	Military Accoutrements.	Tracing Paper.
Die Sinkers.	Mother of Pearl Workers.	Coach Makers.
Engravers.	Ormolu Workers.	Boat Builders.
Surgical, Mathematical, and	Tinfoil Workers.	Black Lead Pencils.
Optical Instruments.	Bookbinders.	Basket Makers.
Electro Gilding and Plating.	Embossers.	Comb and Tortoise Shell.
Gun Manufactures.	Marble Paper Makers.	Broom Makers.
Lamp ditto.	Emery and Sand Paper ditto.	Toy Makers.

Cork Cutters.
Lapidaries.
Cane Workers.
Carvers and Gilders.
Organ Builders.
Patten and Clog Makers.
Pianoforte Makers.
Fire Engine Makers.
Undertakers.
Packing Case Makers.
Catgut Makers.

Lucifer Match Makers.
Firework Makers.
Soda Water Manufacturers.
Isinglass and Gelatine.
Looking Glass Makers.
Maltsters.
Manure Manufacturers.
Sealing Wax and Wafer.
Tobacco and Snuff Mills.
Treacle Boilers.

Sadlers, Collar Makers, and
Harness Makers.
Bedding Manufacturers.
Glaziers.
Trunk Makers.
Painters.
Quartz Crushing.
Timber Preserving.
Rule Makers.
Umbrella Manufactures.
Terra Cotta Works.

No. LXIII.—BRITISH SPIRITS.

*Return to two Orders of the House of Commons, dated 15th and 19th
February, 1856, for*

*A Return showing the number of gallons of British Spirits brought to charge
in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland; the rate of Duty per
gallon; and the total amount of Duty received in the quarters ending June,
September, and December, 1854, and March, June, September, and
December, 1855, respectively. (Mr. Grogan.)*

*Return of the number of gallons of British Spirits exported to the Colonies
and Foreign parts in the years 1854 and 1855, distinguishing the quantities
sent to the respective places of export. (Mr. Moffat.) (116.)*

In the year ended 31st December, 1854, in England and Wales, 11,138,047 gallons of spirits were charged at a rate of duty of 7s. 10d. per gallon, giving a total amount of duty of 4,362,401l. 14s. 10d. In 1855 the number of gallons was 10,601,609, at 7s. 10d. per gallon duty, and 8s. since the 1st October. The amount of duty was 4,176,508l. 10s. 6d. In Scotland the quantity brought to charge was 6,569,730 gallons in 1854. The rate of duty in 1854 was 4s. 8d. the first quarter of the year, 5s. 8d. from 8th May, and 6s. since the 26th May, and the amount of duty was 1,811,364l. 0s. 4d. In 1855 the quantity brought to charge was 5,355,612 gallons; the rate of duty was 6s. in the first quarter, 6s. 6d. to the 8th May, and 7s. 10d. and 8s. 6d. since the 26th May; and the amount of duty 1,898,040l. 4s. 4d. In Ireland the quantity charged for in 1854 was 8,440,734. The rate of duty 3s. 4d., and, since the 8th May, 4s. The amount of duty, 1,588,745l. 17s. 4d. In 1855 the quantity charged was 6,228,856; the rate of duty 4s. to 6s. 2d., and the amount 1,633,382l. 10s. 2d. The quantity of British spirits sent to the British colonies and possessions in 1854 was 474,062 gallons, and in 1855, 312,265 gallons. To foreign countries, 206,502 gallons in 1854; and 3,528,426 gallons in 1855, of which 3,068,766 gallons were sent to France. Total exports to all parts, 680,564 gallons in 1854, and 3,840,691 gallons in 1855.

No. LXIV.—CIVIL CONTINGENCIES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 15th April, for

Returns of the amount voted for Civil Contingencies, and of Expenditure in each year from 1830 to 1855; of the number and names of Royal Commissions, and amount charged for them in Civil Contingencies in the like period; and of the number and names of Commissions not so charged in the like period. (Mr. Locke King.) (253.)

THE amount voted for Civil Contingencies in the years 1830 to 1855 varied from 100,000*l.* to 200,000*l.*; and the amount expended generally fell short of the amount voted. Since 1844 the vote was 100,000*l.* yearly, and the amount expended 70,000*l.* to 90,000*l.* 143 commissions were charged on Civil Contingencies, giving a total amount of 423,397*l.* Among these the most expensive were the Commission for inquiring into the State of the Poor in Ireland in 1833, 1834, 1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838, 26,393*l.* That for Investigation and Redress of Grievances of Her Majesty's Subjects in Lower Canada, 27,212*l.* That for settling the Territories of the Cape of Good Hope, 24,614*l.* That for Improving the Navigation of the Shannon, 21,200*l.* For inquiring into the Fees in Courts of Justice, 19,045*l.* For settling Claims of British subjects who served in the Portuguese Army and Navy 1840-1849, 12,329*l.* For promoting and encouraging Fine Arts, 11,810*l.* For inquiring into the Tenure of Land in Ireland, 10,991*l.* For carrying into effect Stipulations respecting Boundaries of the new State of Greece, 1831-37, 10,442*l.*

Twenty-three commissions were not charged on Civil Contingencies, the total cost of which amounted to 680,510*l.* Among these the Commission for inquiring into Claims for Compensation under the Act 3 & 4 William IV., cap. 73, for Abolition of Slavery in the West Indies, cost 149,999*l.* The Encumbered Estates Commission, Ireland, 81,279*l.* The Commission for digesting the several Statutes relating to Criminal and other Law, 55,461*l.* That for inquiring into Municipal Corporations, Great Britain and Ireland, 75,150*l.* For inquiring into the Law of Real Property, 27,500*l.* For inquiring into Charters, 79,350*l.* For Improving the Navigation of the Shannon, 40,643*l.* To inquire into the state of Religious Instruction in Ireland, 36,800*l.* For inquiring into the Practice and Proceedings of the Courts of Common Law, 24,397*l.* For inquiring into the State of Religious Instruction in Scotland, 36,800*l.* For ascertaining the best Lines of Railway for Ireland, 24,842*l.*; and for inquiring into Corrupt Practices at Elections, 16,000*l.*, &c., &c.

No. LV.—ACCOUNTS RELATING TO TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

Two Months Ended 31st August and 30th September, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE IMPORTS AND CONSUMPTION OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, IN THE MONTHS ENDED 31st AUGUST AND 30th SEPTEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Animals, living, num.	45,857	46,251	Cotton Manufactures, wholly or in part made up :		
Asbes, Pearl and Pot cwt.	11,435	7,208	Fringe . . lbs.	1,337	1,376
Bark for Tanners' or Dyers' use cwt.	38,437	32,403	Gloves . . pairs	579	1,152
Bones of Animals tons	8,749	7,913	Stockings & Socks "	20,243	16,468
Brimstone . cwt.	296,263	162,520	Other Articles value £	2,316	1,061
Caoutchouc . "	485	3,592	Cubic Nitre cwt.	48,468	21,241
Clocks . number	19,354	25,464	Dyes and Dying		
Cocoa . lbs.	1,070,405	420,154	Stuffs, viz.:		
Coffee, viz.:			Cochineal cwt.	3,207	2,497
Imported from British Possessions			Indigo . . "	24,724	5,166
out of Europe lbs.	5,957,871	2,076,387	Lacdye . . "	1,243	289
Imported from other Parts . lbs.	1,329,151	921,379	Logwood . tons	4,275	3,545
Corn, viz.:			Madder . cwt.	7,643	6,783
Wheat . . qrs.	507,534	453,004	Madder Root . "	10,397	7,955
Barley . . "	59,962	96,274	Shumac . tons	1,496	778
Oats . . "	137,692	69,443	Terra Japonica "	281	13
Rye . . "	1,113	2,168	Cutch . . "	62	79
Peas . . "	2,327	4,558	Valonia . . "	3,285	2,637
Beans . . "	11,509	6,954	Embroidery and Needlework:		
Indian Corn, or Maize . "	130,792	69,836	By Weight . lbs.	481	1,238
Wheat Meal or Flour cwt.	478,286	388,646	By Value value £	4,668	6,869
Barley Meal . "	40	3	Flax, Dressed cwt.	1,503	940
Oat Meal . . "	1,656	98	Undressed . "	240,259	280,767
Rye Meal . . "	1,481	3,299	Tow or Codilla of Flax . "	24,204	44,940
Indian Corn Meal cwt.	—	1,575	Fruits, viz.:		
Cotton, Raw, from United States cwt.	711,870	345,382	Currants . cwt.	274	32,978
Brazil . . "	13,789	9,741	Figs . . "	2	1,192
Egypt . . "	64,114	26,039	Lemons and Oranges bushels	4,557	6,715
British India . "	104,575	164,230	Raisins . cwt.	909	39,079
Other Parts . . "	4,353	7,658	Glass Manufactures:		
Cotton Yarn . lbs.	113,185	81,202	Window Glass		
Declared Value thereof £	11,976	8,581	Shades . cwt.	1,979	2,965
Cotton Manufactures, not made up :			Plate Glass . lbs.	148,899	72,970
East India Piece Goods . pieces	37,472	6,885	White Flint Glass		
Declared Value thereof £	16,583	4,025	Goods not cut, lbs.	28,747	59,005
Other Articles value £	24,537	30,356	All Flint Cut Glass, cwt.	747	1,033
			Guano . . tons.	8,031	4,311
			Hemp, Dressed cwt.	1,013	5,998
			Undressed . "	111,318	111,932
			Tow, or Codilla of Hemp . cwt.	2,070	1,172
			Jute . . "	64,543	35,359

Note.—In pursuance of the Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 94, all Accounts of Customs Revenue, Imports, Exports, and Shipping, are now made up to the last day of the Calendar Months instead of the Financial Months, as heretofore.

SERIES A.

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Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Silk Manufactures of Europe, viz.:			Sugar, unrefined, viz.:		
Velvet Broad Stuffs, the foundation being of Silk . lbs.	5,429	4,915	Of or from other parts:—		
Velvet Broad Stuffs, the foundation being of other Materials than Silk lbs.	552	141	Equal to White Clayed . cwts.	1,548	523
Ribbons of Velvet or Plush, entered from 8th August, 1854 . . lbs.	24,760	27,809	Not equal to White Clayed cwts.	143,096	84,164
Plush for making Hats . . lbs.	14,194	11,375	Not equal to Brown Clayed cwts.	97,251	67,120
Silk Manufactures of India, viz.:			Sugar, Refined, and Candy, of or from British Possessions out of Europe . cwts.	54	1,585
Bandannoes, Corahs, Choppas, Tussore Cloths, Romals, and Taffaties, entered from 8th Aug., 1854 pieces	19,253	47,870	Other parts . cwts.	28,936	13,310
Spices, viz.:			Molasses, of or from British Possessions out of Europe . cwts.	59,848	55,271
Cassia Ligna . lbs.	17,460	116,728	Other parts . "	63,774	42,525
Cinnamon . "	76,777	7,546	Tallow . "	105,463	127,323
Cloves . "	3,388	45,681	Tar . . lasts	1,097	3,287
Mace . "	362	195	Tea . . lbs.	2,525,584	3,310,114
Nutmegs . "	10,182	2,396	Timber & Wood, viz.:		
Pepper . "	1,233,145	968,638	Deals, Battens, Boards, or other Timber or Wood, sawn or split:		
Pimento . cwts.	204	746	Of British Possessions . loads	84,441	122,388
Spirits, viz.:			Foreign . "	63,856	86,569
Rum . p. gals.	718,896	665,697	Staves . "	10,347	10,111
Brandy . "	134,803	211,735	Timber or Wood, not being Articles sawn or split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with duty:		
Geneva . "	23,741	14,392	Of British Possessions . loads	74,722	104,609
Sugar, unrefined, viz.:			Foreign . "	50,213	56,441
Of or from the British Possessions in America:			Tobacco, viz.:		
Equal to White Clayed . cwts.	702	152	Stemmed . lbs.	474,287	438,539
Not equal to White Clayed . cwts.	197,838	152,488	Unstemmed . lbs.	771,824	1,792,357
Not equal to Brown Clayed cwts.	180,251	133,671	Manufactured, and Snuff . lbs.	299,116	78,346
Of or from Mauritius:			Turpentine, common cwts.	25,236	8,065
Equal to White Clayed . cwts.	545	171	Watches:		
Not equal to White Clayed cwts.	30,696	59	Exceeding the value of 10l. each No.	11	18
Not equal to Brown Clayed cwts.	32,038	42,688	Not exceeding the value of 10l. each No.	7,874	9,069
Of or from British Possessions in the East Indies:—			Whale Fins . cwts.	1,267	1,173
Equal to White Clayed . cwts.	3,878	3,583	Wine, viz.:		
Not equal to White Clayed . cwts.	26,544	42,518	Of British Possessions in South Africa:		
Not equal to Brown Clayed cwts.	46,270	31,191	Red . . galls.	42	11,531
			White . . "	6,308	24,834

Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Wine, viz.:			Wine, viz.:		
Of other British Possessions:			From other Countries:		
Red . . . galls.	—	13	Red . . . galls.	10,864	21,565
White. . . "	20	97	White. . . "	18,235	26,031
Foreign:			Wool, Sheep and Lambs':		
From Holland:			From British Possessions out of Europe . . lbs.	9,854,027	6,647,755
Red . . . galls.	569	207	From other parts " Alpaca and the Llama Tribe lbs.	2,717,277	3,394,038
White. . . "	8,933	9,129	Woollen Manufactures:		
From France:			Manufactures not made up . value £	101,553	100,873
Red . . . galls.	41,955	41,002	Articles or Manufactures of Wool wholly or in part made up:		
White. . . "	19,994	22,586	Carpets and Rugs sq. yds.	1,645	448
Portugal:			Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs lbs.	1,825	1,110
Red . . . galls.	186,803	351,194	Gloves . . pairs	486	282
White. . . "	4,467	1,964	Other Articles value £	2,398	1,932
Madeira:					
Red . . . galls.	—	—			
White. . . "	5,479	14,674			
Spain:					
Red . . . galls.	3,599	25,976			
White. . . "	268,214	397,026			
Canaries:					
White. . . galls.	564	1,905			
Naples and Sicily:					
Red . . . galls.	17	40			
White. . . "	31,675	38,471			

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE IN THE MONTHS ENDED 31st AUGUST, 1856, AND 30th SEPTEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Cheese . . . cwts.	575	991	Cotton, Raw, viz. . imported from		
Cocoa . . . lbs.	890,809	220,764	Brazil . . . cwts.	376	1,841
Coffee, viz.:			Egypt . . . "	750	1,010
Imported from British Possessions out of Europe . . lbs.	4,031,566	3,106,070	British India . . "	94,470	76,682
Imported from other Parts . . . lbs.	1,692,698	1,797,623	Cotton Yarn . . lbs.	74,048	65,858
Corn, viz.:			Declared value thereof . . £	7,785	7,040
Wheat . . . qrs.	8,492	5,735	Cotton Manufactures not made up, viz.:		
Barley . . . "	—	2,679	East India Piece Goods . . pieces	23,401	9,438
Oats . . . "	102	89	Declared value thereof . . £	10,038	3,830
Wheat Meal or Flour cwts.	16,720	9,468	Other Articles, value £	2,392	3,405
Cotton, Raw, viz. . imported from United States cwts.	61,841	76,813			

BOARD OF TRADE ACCOUNTS.

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Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Cotton Manufactures wholly or in part made up:			Silk Manufactures of Europe, viz.:		
Fringe . . lbs.	491	1,302	Silk or Satin Broad Stuffs . lbs.	830	261
Gloves . . pairs	300	1,116	Silk or Satin Ribbons . lbs.	1,230	237
Stockings & Socks pairs	5,736	20,574	Velvet Broad Stuffs, the foundation being of Silk . lbs.	42	84
Other Articles, val. £	1,186	460	Ribbons of Velvet or Plush, entered from 8th Aug., 1854 lbs.	874	1,274
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs, viz.:			Silk Manufactures of India, viz.:		
Cochineal . cwts.	1,651	1,680	Bandannoes & other Silk Handkerchiefs, Corahs, Choppas, Tussore Cloths, Romals, and Taffaties, entered from 8th Aug., 1854 . pieces	39,980	36,718
Indigo . . "	6,418	4,312	Spices, viz.:		
Lac dye . . "	267	206	Cassia Ligna . lbs.	41,073	43,697
Logwood . tons	364	1,029	Cinnamon . "	100,012	22,624
Terra Japonica "	15	19	Cloves . . "	43,989	66,326
Cutch . . "	8	30	Mace . . "	4,476	3,275
Embroidery & Needle-work:			Nutmegs . . "	32,478	10,497
By weight . lbs.	1	9	Pepper . . "	518,427	798,297
By value value £	160	1,082	Pimento . cwts.	1,848	511
Glass Manufactures, viz.:			Spirits, viz.:		
Window Glass, and Shades and Cylinders . . cwts.	56	192	Rum . prl. galls.	530,467	254,929
Plate Glass . lbs.	3,570	7	Brandy . "	162,703	94,916
All Flint Cut Glass, Flint Coloured do., and Fancy Ornamental do. cwts.	36	46	Geneva . "	17,729	21,875
Guano . . tons	10,213	8,955	Sugar, Unrefined, viz.:		
Hides, Untanned, Dry, cwts.	5,955	8,110	Of or from the British Possessions in America . cwts.	481	2,248
Untanned, Wet " Tanned, Tawed, Curried, or Dressed, except Russia Hides lbs.	898	3,308	Of or from Mauritius cwts.	14,391	43,668
Leather Manufactures, viz.:			Of or from British Possessions in the East Indies cwts.	10,062	12,942
Gloves . . pairs	20,564	26,681	Foreign . "	24,594	25,261
Metals, viz.:			Foreign, Refined, and Candy, viz.:		
Copper, unwrought and part wrought cwts.	1,642	1,500	Of or from British Possessions out of Europe . cwts.	364	2,804
Iron, in bars, unwrought . tons	563	986	Other Parts . "	2,082	4,544
Steel, unwrought "	191	88	Molasses, of or from British Possessions out of Europe cwts.	4,582	4,829
Lead, Pig & Sheet "	227	2	Of or from other Parts . cwts.	1,575	3,514
Spelter . . "	188	89	Tea . . lbs.	637,338	686,212
Tin in Blocks, Ingots, Bars, or Slabs cwts.	60	548	Tobacco, viz.:		
Oil, viz.:			Stemmed . lbs.	1,245	40
Palm . . cwts.	30,411	12,015	Unstemmed . "	511,750	944,786
Cocoa Nut . . "	7,324	5,791	Foreign Manufactured, and Snuff lbs.	61,289	80,541
Olive . . tuns	361	333	Wine, viz.:		
Opium . . lbs.	1,864	3,925	Red, of British Possessions . galls.	4	24
Quicksilver . . "	54,713	60,992	Red, Foreign . "	122,323	83,701
Rice, not in the Husk cwts.	167,598	149,075	White, of British Possessions galls.	416	5,377
Silk, viz.:					
Raw . . lbs.	92,117	67,789			
Waste, Knubs and Husks . cwts.	97	6			
Thrown . lbs.	29,756	11,525			

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Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	Articles.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Wine, viz.: White Foreign galls. 112,611		102,237	Woollen Manufac- tures, viz.: Manufactures not made up value £ 1,806		20
Red and White— mixed in Bond galls. ...		2,393	Articles or Manu- factures of Wool wholly or in part made up, viz.: Carpets and Rugs sq. yds. 63		—
Wool, Sheep and Lambs', viz.: From British Pos- sessions out of Eu- rope lbs. 3,923,363		950,418	Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs lbs. 294		53
From other Parts Alpaca and the Llama Tribe lbs. 27,034		311,184	Other Articles, value £ 302		401
		799			

EXPORTS—BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE, &c.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL AND OTHER ARTICLES OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES IN THE TWO MONTHS ENDED 31st AUGUST AND 30th SEPTEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	Quantities.		Declared Value.	
	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
Alkali, viz.: Soda . . . cwts.	113,035	139,315	£ 52,213	£ 57,687
Beer and Ale . . . barrels	26,134	20,674	88,681	79,779
Butter . . . cwts.	11,859	13,186	57,705	64,722
Candles . . . lbs.	643,300	500,251	30,653	24,448
Cheese . . . cwts.	2,855	3,477	11,704	14,333
Coals and Culm . . . tons	687,917	636,325	324,675	300,141
Cordage and Cables . . . cwts.	11,405	14,189	22,872	27,789
Cotton Manufactures: Entered by the Yard (exclu- sive of Lace & Patent Net) yards	192,001,120	162,744,365	2,583,523	2,299,039
Lace and Patent Net . . . "	8,349,329	8,679,909	41,085	42,343
Thread for Sewing . . . lbs.	462,420	515,932	47,137	52,632
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	59,321	40,735	24,644	12,839
Of all other descriptions . . value £	29,789	34,811
Cotton Yarn . . . lbs.	17,120,126	17,129,092	768,242	808,456
Earthenware . . . pieces	8,468,014	8,074,992	114,071	114,822
Fish, viz.: Herrings . . . barrels	65,460	111,696	73,869	142,435
Of other sorts . . . value £	10,425	19,117
Glass Manufactures: Flint Glass . . . cwts.	5,008	4,625	18,609	16,144
Window Glass . . . "	1,868	1,694	2,488	1,862
Bottles, Green or Common . . "	38,618	41,880	21,911	22,985
Plate Glass . . . value £	4,051	7,727
Haberdashery and Millinery . . "	395,124	332,509
Hardwares and Cutlery . . . "	307,281	335,375
Leather, Unwrought . . . cwts.	2,678	2,467	23,968	20,429
Wrought, viz.: Gloves . . . lbs.	5,033	4,039	3,023	2,911
Of other sorts . . . "	554,426	431,233	102,332	85,145
Saddlery and Harness . . value £	25,652	26,145

Articles.	Quantities.		Declared Value.	
	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.	August, 1856.	Sept., 1856.
			£	£
Linen Manufactures :				
Entered by the Yard (exclusive of Lace of Thread) . . . yards	13,774,717	11,338,191	376,609	354,532
Lace of Thread . . . "	11,405	280
Thread for Sewing . . . lbs.	310,169	381,765	31,114	38,968
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	2,108	4,031
Linen Yarn . . . lbs.	2,083,102	2,098,629	104,150	114,187
Machinery and Mill Work, viz.:				
Steam Engines and parts of				
Steam Engines . . . value £	91,291	49,163
Of all other sorts . . . "	195,444	217,279
Metals, viz.:				
Iron, Pig . . . tons	35,706	33,161	136,409	129,637
Bar, Bolt, and Rod . . . " . . .	66,756	57,450	589,381	510,386
Wire . . . " . . .	761	657	17,850	14,125
Cast . . . " . . .	5,528	7,837	52,920	87,131
Wrought of all sorts . . . " . . .	26,721	22,974	358,760	322,883
Steel, Unwrought . . . " . . .	1,708	1,919	53,460	65,242
Copper in Bricks and Pigs . . . cwts.	5,117	7,421	26,984	38,828
Sheets, Nails, &c., (including Mixed or Yellow Metal for Sheathing) . . . " . . .	27,829	27,943	150,443	151,744
Wrought of other sorts . . . " . . .	2,118	3,318	12,856	20,510
Brass of all sorts . . . " . . .	2,229	1,547	13,365	8,513
Lead . . . tons	2,801	3,171	69,800	78,817
Tin, Unwrought . . . cwts.	3,331	4,418	21,335	27,080
Tin Plates . . . value £	114,125	108,241
Oil, Linseed, Hempseed, and Rapeseed . . . galls.	542,495	614,828	85,498	99,273
Painters' Colours and Materials . . . value £	45,127	41,472
Salt . . . bushels	2,870,144	3,489,664	37,068	47,068
Silk Manufactures :				
Of Silk only:				
Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons . . . lbs.	77,351	57,778	91,337	66,897
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	681	465	842	641
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	54,356	57,396
Of Silk mixed with other Materials:				
Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons . . . lbs.	38,629	56,041	22,161	28,816
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	932	100	772	90
Of all other descriptions . . . value £	18,011	18,772
Silk, Thrown . . . lbs.	82,591	91,104	95,191	99,763
Silk Twist and Yarn . . . " . . .	53,413	58,437	25,764	29,172
Soap . . . cwts.	20,538	18,239	28,786	24,289
Stationery . . . value £	67,340	59,578
Sugar, Refined . . . cwts.	28,432	35,331	77,130	98,072
Wool, Sheep or Lambs' . . . lbs.	1,378,482	1,294,025	90,705	88,852
Woollen and Worsted Manufactures :				
Woollens entered by the piece . . . pieces	63,542	51,732	274,112	225,944
Woollens entered by the yard . . . yards	6,028,467	4,770,367	321,960	270,355
Worsted Stuffs . . . pieces	219,908	187,346	289,722	251,360
Stockings . . . doz. pairs	23,974	25,208	19,923	14,131
Articles entered at value . . . value £	72,627	52,440
Woollen and Worsted Yarn . . . cwts.	18,454	25,636	221,504	302,571
Yarn of Wool or Worsted mixed with other Materials . . . " . . .	469	504	12,500	10,499
Total declared value:				
Of enumerated Articles . . . £	9,556,568	8,165,653
Of unenumerated Articles . . . £	1,196,724	1,051,018
All Articles . . . £	10,753,292	10,216,671

No. LVI.—PARIS UNIVERSAL EXHIBITION.

Reports on the Paris Universal Exhibition.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

MR. HENRY COLE, C.B., reported on the management of the British portion of the Exhibition. The principles on which the French Government conducted the Paris Exhibition of 1855 resembled, for the most part, those of the London Exhibition of 1851. The chief differences consisted in the admission of pictures and engravings, which were prohibited in London; in the adoption of a special customs' tariff of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* on all articles which were prohibited, either absolutely or partially, by the ordinary French tariff; in the permission given to exhibitors to mark prices on articles exhibited, which was not granted in London; and in the award of prizes to foremen of works and workmen, and who were not direct exhibitors. The whole cost of the central management of the Exhibition was borne by the French Government, whereas the risk of the London Exhibition was undertaken by a voluntary association of individuals. The management in Paris was confided to a special commission appointed by the Emperor; and the principal building was erected at a cost exceeding half a million of pounds sterling, upon a guarantee from the Government of 4 per cent., together with a share in any contingent profits, which, however, did not arise.

The British Government, in order to secure an adequate representation of British Art and Industry in Paris, corresponding to the efforts which the French Government had made in 1851, granted 50,000*l.* by a parliamentary vote. The assistance of public associations and local committees was also obtained for the purpose, and special reports were by them published. The number of exhibitors from the United Kingdom was 1,555, and from the British colonies 1,070. The total number of exhibitors was 20,339, viz.—10,691 from the French Empire, and 10,148 from foreign States, viz., France, 9,790; Algeria, 724; French colonies, 177; the Duchy of Anhalt, 15; the Argentine Confederation, 6; Austria, 1,296; Grand Duchy of Baden, 88; Bavaria, 172; Belgium, 686; Brazil, 4; Duchy of Brunswick, 16; Republic of Costa Rica, 4; Denmark, 90; St. Domingo, 1; Egypt, 6; Frankfort-on-the-Maine, 24; Great Britain and Ireland, 1,589; British colonies, 985; Greece, 131; Republic of Guatemala, 7; Kingdom of Hanover, 18; Hanse Towns, 89; Grand Duchy of Hesse, 74; Electorate of Hesse, 14; Principality of Lippe-Detmold, 2; Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, 23; Mexico, 107; Duchy of Nassau, 59; Netherlands, 411; New Granada, 13; Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, 13; Ottoman Empire, 2; Sandwich Islands, 5; Papal States, 71; Portugal (including colonies), 443; Prussia, 1,313; Principalities of Reuss (Elder and Younger Branches), 2; Sardinia, 198; Saxony, 96;

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Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg, 2; Duchy of Saxe-Coburg, 6; Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, 11; Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, 3; Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar, 1; Principality of Schaumburg-Lippe, 2; Principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, 1; Spain, 568; Sweden and Norway, 538; Switzerland, 408; Grand Duchy of Tuscany, 197; Tunis, 1; United States, 130; Wurtemberg, 207. Total, 10,148.

The value of the goods sent to the Exhibition was 173,441*l.*, exclusive of the goldsmiths' and jewellers' work, which was estimated at 520,186*l.* The Fine Arts were valued at 137,560*l.* The number of packages sent was 6,420; the weight, 1,303 tons 6 cwt. 25 lbs. The number returned to England was 3,978, and the weight was 764 tons 8 cwt. 3 qrs. 22 lbs.

The total number of visits to the Paris Exhibition was 4,533,464; 3,626,934 visits were made to the Industrial Section, and 906,530 visits to that of the Fine Arts. Forty thousand British subjects visited the Paris Exhibition, of whom 2,768 were persons who obtained workmen's passports from the Foreign Office without payment.

Her Majesty the Queen, His Royal Highness Prince Albert, the Prince of Wales, and the Princess Royal, paid several visits to the various departments of the Exhibition in the month of August.

The scale of fees charged for admission to the Palais de l'Industrie, and to the Palais des Beaux Arts respectively was as follows:—

At the opening of the Exhibition (15th of May, 1855),

Sunday	20 centimes (2 <i>d.</i>)
Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday,					
and Saturday...	1 franc (10 <i>d.</i>)
Friday	5 francs (4 <i>s.</i>)

The receipts were 2,941,668 francs, a sum equal to 117,666*l.* 15*s.* The receipts at the London Exhibition amounted to 356,808*l.* 2*s.*, but the scale of admission was higher, and the lowest fee taken 1*s.* A statement of the expenditure has not yet been published, but it will exceed 500,000*l.*, exclusive of the cost of the Palais de l'Industrie, which was above 500,000*l.* As this building will have to be purchased by the Government, the total cost will have exceeded a million of pounds sterling.

The commercial results of the Exhibition are anticipated to be great, especially in causing reductions in the tariffs. As to the course of future exhibitions, their tendency will be to exhibit, not rare and costly productions required by very few purchasers, but manufactures, and especially those manufactures the use of which is universal, and not merely national or peculiar. The chief and direct advantages of an exhibition are derived by the country which holds it. London reaped a large harvest from visitors to the metropolis. Upwards of 70,000 of them were foreigners. So has Paris during its Exhibition. Nearly 160,000 foreigners visited Paris, upwards of 40,000 being British subjects. Upwards of 350,000 visitors

from the provinces of France came to Paris during the Exhibition, and probably a sum of 6,000,000*l.* was spent in Paris during 1855 by visitors. An absolute suspension of customs due on articles exhibited and sold during the Exhibition would not be too great a bounty for a distant exhibition.

In the Paris Exhibition, as at London, jurors, generally of thirteen persons, were named for each class—half the number of each jury being named by France, and half by foreign Governments, each foreign country obtaining a number somewhat proportioned to its number of exhibitors.

The total number of Jurors was 398 :—The number assigned to France, 208; the number assigned to Foreign Countries, 190; in the following proportions :—

Class I. Mining and Metallurgical Products.—Austria, 2; Belgium, 2; British Colonies, 1; Great Britain, 2; France, 5; Prussia, 1. Total, 13.

Class II. Forestry, Hunting, Shooting, and Fishing, and Products obtained without Cultivation.—Great Britain, 1; France, 8; Portugal, 1; Tuscany, 1; United States, 1. Total, 12.

Class III. Agriculture.—Austria, 2; Grand Duchy of Baden, 1; Belgium, 2; Denmark, 1; France, 9; Great Britain, 3; Spain, 1; Sweden and Norway, 1. Total, 20.

Class IV. Machinery in general, as applied to Industry.—France, 6; Great Britain, 1; Portugal, 1; Spain, 1. Total, 9.

Class V. Special Machinery and Apparatus for Railways and other Modes of Transport.—Belgium, 2; France, 5; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1. Total, 10.

Class VI. Special Machinery and Apparatus for Workshops.—Austria, 1; France, 7; Great Britain, 1; Prussia, 1; Sardinia, 1; Sweden and Norway, 1; Tuscany, 1. Total, 13.

Class VII. Special Machinery and Apparatus for the Manufacture of Woven Fabrics.—Austria, 1; France, 5; Great Britain, 1; Spain, 1; United States, 1. Total, 9.

Class VIII. Arts relating to the Exact Sciences, and to Instruction.—Bavaria, 1; France, 6; Great Britain, 3; Prussia, 1; Switzerland, 2. Total, 13.

Class IX. Manufactures relating to the Economical Production and Employment of Heat, Light, and Electricity.—Austria, 1; France, 5; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1. Total, 9.

Class X. Chemical Manufactures, Dyeing and Printing, Paper, Leather, Skins, India-rubber, &c.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 1; France, 9; Great Britain, 2; Grand Duchy of Hesse, 1; Portugal, 1; Prussia, 2; Switzerland, 1. Total, 18.

Class XI. Preparation and Preservation of Alimentary Substances.—Austria, 2; France, 4; Great Britain, 1; Prussia, 1; Wurtemberg, 1. Total, 9.

Class XII. Hygiene, Pharmacy, Surgery, and Medicine.—France, 7; Great Britain, 3; Netherlands, 1. Total, 11.

Class XIII. Naval and Military Arts.—Belgium, 2; France, 7; Great Britain, 2; Greece, 1; Prussia, 1. Total, 13.

Class XIV. Civil Engineering and Building.—France, 9; Great Britain, 2; Turkey and Egypt, 1. Total, 12.

Class XV. Steel and its Products.—Austria, 1; France, 6; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 2; Sardinia, 1; Sweden and Norway, 1. Total, 13.

Class XVI. General Metal Work.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 1; France, 7; Great Britain, 2; Hanover, 1; Wurtemberg, 1. Total, 13.

Class XVII. Goldsmith's Work, Jewellery and Bronzes.—France, 5; Great Britain, 1; Netherlands, 1; Prussia, 2; Turkey and Egypt, 1. Total, 10.

Class XVIII. Glass and Pottery.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 1; France, 7; Great Britain, 3; Netherlands, 1; Prussia, 2. Total, 15.

Class XIX. Cotton Manufactures.—Austria, 2; Belgium, 1; France, 6; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1; Switzerland, 2. Total, 14.

Class XX. Woollen and Worsted Manufactures.—Austria, 3; Belgium, 1; France, 9; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 3; Saxony, 1; Wurtemberg, 1. Total, 20.

Class XXI. Silk Manufactures.—Austria, 3; France, 7; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1; Switzerland, 1. Total, 14.

Class XXII. Flax and Hemp Manufactures.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 1; France, 5; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1; Wurtemberg, 1. Total, 11.

Class XXIII. Hosiery, Carpets, Embroidery, Lace of every kind, Gold and Silver Fringe, &c.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 2; France, 9; Frankfort-on-the-Maine, 1; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1; Spain, 1; Switzerland, 1. Total, 18.

Class XXIV. Furniture and Decoration.—Austria, 1; Bavaria, 1; France, 6; Great Britain, 2; Hanse Towns, 1; Mexico, 1. Total, 12.

Class XXV. Articles of Clothing, Objects of Fashion and Fancy.—Austria, 2; France, 6; Great Britain, 1; Switzerland, 1. Total, 10.

Class XXVI. Drawing and Modelling applied to Industry, Letter-press and Copper-plate Printing, Photography.—Austria, 1; France, 5; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1. Total, 9.

Class XXVII. Manufacture of Musical Instruments.—Austria, 1; Belgium, 1; France, 4; Great Britain, 1. Total, 7.

Class XXVIII. Painting, Engraving, and Lithography.—Austria, 1; Grand Duchy of Baden, 1; Bavaria, 1; Belgium, 3; France, 16; Great Britain, 4; Netherlands, 1; Prussia, 2; Spain, 1; Sweden and Norway, 1; Switzerland, 1. Total, 32.

Class XXIX. Sculpture and Die-sinking.—Austria, 2; Belgium, 1; France, 11; Great Britain, 3; Papal States, 1; Prussia, 1. Total, 19.

Class XXX. Architecture.—France, 7; Great Britain, 2; Prussia, 1. Total, 10.

Mr. Richard Redgrave, R.A., reported on the arrangements for contributing a collection of works of Fine Art to the Paris Exhibition. Invitations were sent from the French Government to send works of Art, the works to be by artists living at the date of the decree. The exhibiting space was calculated to be, for paintings of oil, 7,000 square feet; for paintings in water-colour, 1,500; for engravings, 2,100; for architectural drawings, 1,400; being a total of 12,000 square feet of wall space, besides 1,100 square feet of floor space for architectural models, and for works in sculpture. The following works were obtained from the various proprietors, for the purpose of being exhibited at Paris :—

234 works in oil, by	99 artists, valued at	96,130 <i>£</i>
145 „ in water-colours, by	52 „ „	15,653 <i>£</i>
197 engravings and lithographs, by	62 „ „	1,676 <i>£</i>
127 architectural works, by	51 „ „	5,765 <i>£</i>
51 statues, and	} by	35 „ „ 18,336 <i>£</i>
24 busts and bas-reliefs,		

being a total of 778 works of Art, by 299 artists, at a total value of 137,560*£*, for which sum an insurance was effected with the underwriters at Lloyd's and others, against all accidents by rail and sea, both going and returning; and also against damage by fire while in the building, and during transit.

The gallery appropriated to British pictures in oil was on the north side of the Palais des Beaux Arts, running the whole length of the building. It was 440 feet long, 25 feet wide, and 28 feet high. Of this gallery, about 300 feet in length was on two sides occupied by British pictures in oil. The water-colour paintings, engravings, &c., occupied 440 feet. The following medals and awards were given for the United Kingdom, viz.—2 great medals of honour; 10 first class medals; 12 second class medals; 7 third class medals; and 34 honourable mentions; being 65 awards among 299 artists, or about 1 to every 4½.

Mr. Richard A. Thompson, General Superintendent of Arrangements, reported on the measures taken for collecting and arranging the British objects. The area applied for amounted to 139,450 superficial feet of horizontal or floor space, and 81,873 feet of vertical or hanging space. The number of applications was 1,890. Australia demanded, for 251 exhibitors, 871 superficial feet; British Guiana, for 95 exhibitors, 357 feet; Canada, for 348 exhibitors, 3,153 feet; Cape of Good Hope, for 46 exhibitors, 169 feet; Ceylon, for 80 exhibitors, 346 feet; Jamaica, for 45 exhibitors, 483 feet; Mauritius, for 24 exhibitors, 117 feet; Van Diemen's Land, for 118 exhibitors, 429 feet; Victoria (Australia), for 36 exhibitors, 289 feet; India, for 599 exhibitors, 3,592 feet; Bahamas, for 5 exhibitors, 198 feet; Barbadoes, for 3 exhibitors, 84 feet; and New Zealand, for 10 exhibitors, 117 feet.

The following Table shows the number of exhibitors, and the value of their contributions in each of the industrial classes from the United Kingdom; also the number and description of awards made by the juries:—

Class.	Number of Exhibitors.	Value of Contributions.	Awards of the Juries.					
			Grand Médaille d'Honneur.	Médaille d'Honneur.	First Class Medal.	Second Class Medal.	Honourable Mention.	Total Awards.
		£. s. d.						
1	97	2,454 0 4	—	1	19	19	16	55
2	7	670 5 0	—	—	1	—	—	1
3	32	6,073 18 0	—	5	10	13	8	36
4	40	9,187 5 0	—	1	4	11	8	24
5	89	15,602 4 1	—	—	6	9	20	35
6	54	5,705 8 3	1	1	10	12	5	29
7	36	4,813 6 0	1	1	11	10	3	26
8	74	8,599 9 5	—	2	5	7	7	21
9	52	5,155 5 0	1	—	6	10	7	24
10	128	4,005 5 5	1	3	28	27	21	80
11	19	533 2 3	—	—	2	7	3	12
12	43	2,580 8 6	1	—	8	11	8	28
13	70	8,782 10 0	1	—	17	3	9	30
14	29	1,763 2 3	2	—	8	8	4	22
15	72	6,892 3 2	1	3	18	23	11	56
16	66	7,888 12 8	—	—	13	22	15	50
17	30	520,186 18 10	—	3	8	4	2	17
18	42	24,506 2 11	1	—	9	16	1	27
19	62	10,436 8 1	2	1	13	17	4	37
20	77	10,207 8 0	1	2	18	11	8	40
21	27	2,186 4 4	—	1	10	7	4	22
22	60	3,439 15 3	1	1	3	10	5	20
23	77	7,794 8 7	—	3	18	23	10	54
24	51	7,283 8 6	—	2	6	13	10	31
25	111	11,456 4 6	1	—	9	32	25	67
26	86	5,830 17 1	—	1	33	23	15	72
27	18	1,593 0 0	—	—	3	—	1	4
31	Included	in the above.	—	1	5	5	—	11
Totals	1,549	693,627 1 6	15	32	301	353	230	931

The number of awards in Class 3 exceeds the apparent number of exhibitors; this was caused by the jury awarding medals for goods placed in other classes, as for instance, specimens of flax exhibited in conjunction with linens in Class 22, by the Belfast Local Committee.

Class 31, Domestic Economy, formed after the opening of the Exhibition, consisted of articles remarkable for utility and cheapness, which were mostly selected from the goods exhibited in other classes.

TABLE showing the AWARDS of the JURIES to the BRITISH COLONIES.

Name of Colony.	Grand Médaille d'Honneur.	Médaille d'Honneur.	First Class Medal.	Second Class Medal.	Honourable Mention.	Total Awards for each colony.	Value of Contributions.
Bahamas	1	1	£ 20
Barbadoes	1	...	1	—
British Guiana	2	2	7	11	800
Canada . . .	1	...	12	31	48	92	—
Cape of Good Hope	2	3	...	5	—
Ceylon	2	8	5	15	—
India	12	37	42	91	50,000
Jamaica	3	5	9	17	—
Mauritius	1	3	10	14	—
New South Wales	1	8	8	21	38	6,000
Van Diemen's Land	6	7	7	20	—
Victoria	3	4	4	11	—
Total Awards . .	1	1	51	109	154	316	

The following additional Awards were made to Co-operators and Workmen of the United Kingdom and her Colonies who were not exhibitors, but who had been connected with the invention, production, or arrangement of the articles sent for exhibition.

Grand Médaille d'Honneur.	Médaille d'Honneur.	First Class Medal.	Second Class Medal.	Honourable Mention.	Total.
4	1	27	56	42	130

The Deputation from the Belfast Chamber of Commerce reported on the Linen Manufactures. After alluding to the excellent quality of the articles exhibited, a calculation was made of the consumption of linen in France, which, reckoning at 7 yards for each person, would give about 250,000,000 yards per annum. Estimating the value at $1\frac{1}{2}$ franc, or 1s. English per yard, the annual value must be about 312,500,000 francs, or 12,500,000l. sterling. The same fabrics could be produced in Ireland and Scotland at 20 per cent. less, on account of the lower price of our linen yarns, which are now excluded from France by prohibitory duties. In France, linen goods are used for the army and navy. In both the army and navy, the shirts, trousers, sheets, &c., are all linen. The report proceeds to examine the display of linen made by Hanover, Austria, Belgium, and Germany, and shows the injury to France by the Belgian Treaty. For the article of linen, the French nation pays at least one-fifth more than it would do under a moderate system of duties, the loss amounting annually to at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, or $62\frac{1}{2}$ millions of francs.

The Deputation from the Bradford Chamber of Commerce reported on the worsted manufacture. After a general survey of the goods exposed, the deputation came to the conclusion that this district had nothing to learn from other countries as far as the manufacture of mixed wool and cotton fabrics is concerned, and they congratulated the trade upon the high position it occupies in that department. But in goods made of wool only, or of wool and silk mixed, the deputation acknowledged the superiority of the French and some other continental nations.

Upon the subject of drawbacks, the deputation reported as follows:—The French worsted manufacturer is said to derive an advantage from the “prime” or bonus allowed by his Government upon the exportations of his yarns and goods, which must be taken into consideration in estimating the difficulties our manufacturers have to contend with in their competition, but upon close examination it appears that this advantage is more apparent than real. The deputation have reason to believe that the French manufacturer imports the greatest part of his wool for weft, even if he employs nothing but the home-grown article for warp. For these imports he is obliged to pay, if imported in French bottoms, an *ad valorem* duty of 20 per cent., which, upon the actual value of the manufactured article, cannot amount to less than 5 or probably 6 per cent.

The drawbacks upon the great bulk of merinos exported to this country range from $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon their value, thus barely equalizing the disadvantage the French manufacturer labours under from the duty imposed upon the raw material, which has become perfectly indispensable to his production. This duty must at the same time injure the manufacturer by its tending to raise artificially the price of the home-grown wools. The bonus allowed upon the exportation of yarns appears to be more considerable than upon goods, without having given a stimulus to their being used by our manufacturers. The whole system of prohibition of manufactures, of import duties on raw materials, combined with a sliding scale of drawbacks for exports, is so much in favour of the smuggler and of the dishonest exporter, that it is no doubt doomed to immediate revision, if not to complete abolition, by the enlightened originator of the splendid Exhibition of which your deputation have had the privilege of studying and imperfectly describing a single but interesting department.

The Huddersfield Chamber of Commerce reported, as respects wool, that if the growers in our own colonies could be induced to get up their wools in better condition, the manufacturing interest generally would, as well as themselves, be greatly benefited thereby; and much trouble and expense would be saved in getting rid of burrs and seeds, which are very detrimental, and both of which might to a great extent be avoided, if sufficient pains were taken for that purpose. The soil, climate, and pasturage of Australia and Van Diemen's Land are evidently well adapted

for the growth of every variety of clothing wools; and the Council have no doubt that our colonists will, with a proper application of their capital, and a right direction of their enterprise, be able to supply the manufacturers of this and other countries with raw material of suitable quality to any needful extent.

With reference to woollen machinery, it must be admitted that we have not hitherto brought into exercise and sustained the same amount of mechanical ingenuity and skill which the cotton and worsted trades of this country have done.

As to manufactured goods, the continental manufacturers have an aptitude for tasteful designs and colourings in fancy goods, which has the effect of giving them a great measure of success in competition with us, and in such a rivalry we can indulge no hope of distinction, unless our manufacturers will cultivate the same excellency in taste and design. In worsted warp and woollen weft trouserings, the French manufacturers exhibit excellent styles, and valuable cloths, for which there is an increasing demand. They also exhibit specimens of the dry clean-faced buckskins, of which we used to make such large quantities. They are well made in all wool, woollen warp and cotton weft, and cotton and wool mixed warp, with woollen weft, and of various fancy colours.

The report concludes with the following general considerations:—After carefully reviewing the whole subject, and weighing with impartiality and candour the information which has been obtained, the Council have no reason to fear but that British capital, industry, and enterprise, may still maintain for us the pre-eminence which we have hitherto enjoyed for producing goods adapted to the varied wants of the world. At the same time, there is ample proof afforded that the nations of the Continent are quite alive to the importance of encouraging manufacturing industry in all its branches, and that they immediately avail themselves of every improvement in machinery, either in use amongst us, or invented by themselves, for cheapening their productions. The disparity which existed between these nations and ourselves some thirty years ago is, it must be admitted, now considerably lessened; and our present most important advantage over them, in the transit of raw material to the manufacturers, and manufactured goods to the various markets, is daily becoming less appreciable by the increase of continental railway communication, and the extension of their commercial shipping. The Council wish, therefore, to impress upon our manufacturers the absolute necessity of making every effort, and putting forth their best energies to meet the growing competition which is thus offered to them, and not allow themselves to be lulled into a state of inactivity or false security by any mistaken ideas of their own inherent superiority.

It cannot be denied that the continental manufacturers now successfully compete with us in several neutral markets, which until recently were almost wholly supplied by us. This may, to some extent, be attributed to

our ever increasing home trade, and to the preference which may be felt for producing goods adapted thereto; but the Council do not think the engrossing claims of this market are either so obvious or urgent as to lead us to underrate the policy or advantages of studying the wants of the best foreign markets, not only with a view to maintain the ground we have already acquired, but for further progress in that direction.

The Leeds Chamber of Commerce awarded the following praise to the excellence of foreign cloth:—It is impossible to deny to the cloths of France, Austria, Prussia, and Belgium, great excellence of make and beauty of finish and colour; but in the majority of instances where superiority can be fairly claimed by them over the English goods, it is in the finer class of fabrics, those suited only to a limited demand, or to particular markets, rather than in the common and more popular descriptions.

The attention of our manufacturers and merchants ought to be awakened to the spirit of enterprise which evidently characterizes in a great degree their Continental competitors. It is certain that the latter are making every effort to attain a position of superiority. All new processes are tried with a disregard to immediate outlay, which cannot but give great encouragement to inventors, who find their reward certain if their improvements are practical; and the deputation earnestly urge upon the manufacturers of Yorkshire a greater degree of liberality and of enterprise in the adoption of new machines and improved methods than has appeared latterly the case.

There is perhaps nothing more striking in the Exhibition than the evidence of the progressive development of the iron trade on the Continent, particularly in France and the Prussian dominions, and in an especial manner as applicable to railway and marine purposes; although it ought to be observed that the specimens exhibited indicate that neither labour nor expense have been regarded in their preparation, and it is manifest that great efforts have been made to produce a powerful impression on all who are interested by this demonstration of their large capabilities.

The President of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce reported on the samples of general produce, and of cotton particularly; on palm oil and soap, stearine, woods, cordage, iron, cotton and woollen manufactures, models of ships, coals, productions of Algeria, cotton, tobacco, minerals, and Australian productions.

Mr. J. Evelyn Denison, M.P., Vice-President of the Jury for Class II., reported on agricultural implements and produce. The position of France and England, as regards agriculture, is described as follows from a work of M. Leonce de Lavergne, author of "*Essai sur l'Economie Rurale de l'Angleterre, de l'Ecosse, et d'Irlande*":—

“ France has devoted herself too exclusively to the production of corn crops, which are the immediate food of man, without sufficiently considering the means necessary to uphold the fertility of the soil under this exhausting process. England, on the contrary, has been led, partly by the nature of the climate, partly by design, to take a sort of by-path, which reaches corn crops through the intervention of green crops; finding, in the rearing of cattle and the supply of manure, the restorative process which is necessary.

“ The experiment has entirely succeeded, and is extending itself day by day; and the remarkable fact is, that in proportion as the head of cattle increases, the quantity of corn increases also; the gain in intensity exceeds the loss in extent. Thus, on a surface of 31,000,000 of hectares, reduced to 20,000,000 by the waste lands, the British isles produce more food for animals than the entire surface of France, of double the extent. (A French hectare is equal to 2,471 English acres.) Hence, the supply of manure is in proportion three or four times greater. The average produce per hectare in France is 6 hectolitres of wheat, about 5 of rye, and 1 of maize or buckwheat—collectively about 11 hectolitres. In England, 25 hectolitres of wheat ($3\frac{1}{2}$ quarters per acre), more than double in quantity, and three times more in saleable value. Scotland and Ireland are included in this estimate. If the comparison is made with England alone, the results are far more striking. This little country, not larger than one-fourth of France, produces 38,000,000 of hectolitres of wheat, 16,000,000 of barley, 34,000,000 of oats. If France produced as much in proportion, she would produce, deducting seed, 150,000,000 hectolitres of wheat, 200,000,000 of oats and other grains; that is, at least double her actual production.

“ Taking all products into account, animal and vegetable, it appears that the produce of England per hectare nearly doubles that of France.

“ The great lesson which these figures teach, beyond the disproportion of the results, is the relation of vegetable to animal products. In France, the vegetable products form four-sixths of the whole, and the animal products two-sixths only; showing at first sight an exhausting cultivation, and one at least stationary. In the United Kingdom, the animal products are equal to the vegetable. Thus the animal products alone of an English farm are equal to the entire products, animal and vegetable, of a French farm of the same extent.

“ The most remarkable feature of British farming, in comparison with that of France, is the number and quality of the sheep. According to the statistical returns and estimates, the number of sheep in France and in England is about equal—about 35,000,000 of sheep in France, and 35,000,000 in England. But this apparent equality conceals an inequality the most marked. 35,000,000 of sheep in the United Kingdom live on 31,000,000 hectares of land. 35,000,000 of sheep in France live on 53,000,000 hectares. France, in order to have as many sheep in proportion as the United Kingdom, ought to have 60,000,000. If the comparison is made with England alone, the difference is far greater. England feeds

30,000,000 of sheep on 15,000,000 hectares of land ; that is, proportionally, three times as many as France.

" But the great difference is in the quality of the sheep, upon the breeding and improving of which, with a view to weight and early maturity, so much care and attention has been bestowed. The weight of an English sheep is twice that of a French sheep. So that an English farm on an equal surface gives six times as much mutton as a French farm.

" In the case of cattle, the same care in breeding from selected animals in the United Kingdom, and continually improving the races, in studying meat-producing qualities and early maturity, has effected results similar to the results produced in sheep. France possesses 10,000,000 head of cattle, the United Kingdom 8,000,000. In France, three products are demanded from cattle—labour, milk, and meat. In England, only two—milk and meat. The yield of these two valuable productions is materially interfered with by requiring work also from cattle. It might appear, at first sight, that the work of cattle could not in an important degree influence the supply of meat, and it is not difficult for people to persuade themselves that labour in utilizing the life of an ox enables meat to be sold at a lower price. But experience has proved, that if this is sometimes a truth in detail, it is an error in the gross.

" The habit of labour forms hardy, vigorous races, which, like men devoted to hard work, eat much, fatten slowly, develope their bony structure, make little flesh, and make it slowly. The habit of inaction, on the contrary, forms races, gentle, tranquil, which fatten early, assume round and fleshy forms, and give with equal food a far larger yield to the butcher. If we look to labour, the ox is killed when he has finished his task. If we look to meat, the ox is killed at the moment when he yields the largest amount. Cattle, in France, are killed too young or too old ; among the 4,000,000 head killed, figure 2,000,000 calves, giving each only 30 kilogrammes of meat. Those which survive are killed at an age when the growth has long ceased, *i. e.*, when the animal has long been consuming nourishment which has not added to its weight.

" In England, on the contrary, animals are killed neither so young, because in their youth they make the most meat, nor so old, because then they make none. The moment is seized when the animal has reached his maximum of increase.

" In France, the number of animals killed annually is about 4,000,000 head, producing 400,000,000 kilogrammes of meat, averaging therefore 100 kilogrammes per head.

" In the United Kingdom, the number killed is 2,000,000, producing 500,000,000 kilogrammes of meat, averaging 250 kilogrammes per head.

" Thus, with 8,000,000 head of cattle and 30,000,000 hectares of land, British agriculture produces 500,000,000 kilogrammes of meat ; while France, with 10,000,000 head of cattle, and 30,000,000 hectares of land, produces only 400,000,000 kilogrammes."

The report proceeds with describing experiments on ploughs, trials of reaping machines and steam machines, artificial manure, field practice, &c. The value of improved implements in agriculture is tested by the following examination :—

What saving might be effected on a farm of 200 acres of arable land (the rental, say 25*s.* per acre), drained and laid into fields of a suitable size, by the use of good implements? All land is ploughed at least twice a year. The difference in labour between ploughing drained or undrained land is very great.

It would be an estimate much below the mark to put it at 1*s.* per acre for each ploughing.

For the year, 2*s.* per acre.

The next process would be sowing the seed.

On the old system, 2½ bushels of seed wheat would be sown broadcast per acre.

On the new system, with an improved drill, 1½ bushel would be sown, with better results.

There would be a saving, therefore, of one bushel per acre on the 50 acres sown with wheat, which, at 7*s.* per bushel, amounts to 17*l.* 10*s.*, or per acre, over the whole area, 1*s.* 9*d.*

On 50 acres of barley there would likewise be a saving of one bushel of seed per acre, which, at 4*s.* per bushel, would give a saving per acre of 1*s.*

Next comes the preparation of the grain for market. There are to be thrashed the produce of 50 acres of wheat, at a yield of four quarters only per acre, 200 quarters; of barley, 50 acres, at a yield of five quarters per acre, 250 quarters. The cost of thrashing wheat by the flail, and dressing, is 4*s.* per quarter; by an improved steam machine, 1*s.* 6*d.* Saving on 200 quarters of wheat, 25*l.*, or, per acre, 2*s.* 6*d.* The cost of thrashing barley by the flail is 3*s.* per quarter; by steam machine, 2*s.* Saving on 250 quarters, 12*l.* 10*s.*, or per acre, 1*s.* 3*d.*

Total saving by the use of drill and thrashing machine, 8*s.* 6*d.* per acre, or one-third of the rent, 25*s.*

Besides the economy and direct gain to the farmer, the saving of one bushel per acre of the grain employed in reproduction is an important aid to the consumer, and when multiplied over the total area of land still cultivated under the old system, would form no insignificant addition to the annual resources of the country.

The rapid spread of useful information and of approved practice must be laid to the account, in no small degree, of the journal and of the meetings of the Royal English Agricultural Society. The meetings of the Society, held in each year in different districts, enforce precept by example, and communicate every variety of useful information in the most attractive form.

The Earl of Shelburne reported on coachmakers' work, harness, saddlery, whips, and trunks.

Professor Owen, F.R.S., reported on prepared and preserved alimentary substances. In regard to the production of articles of food, the superiority of the United Kingdom in their production is generally acknowledged, but other countries excel in the art of preserving them.

Mr. George Willes reported on the position which certain classes of Birmingham manufactures held in the Universal Exhibition of 1855 when compared with similar productions exhibited by France, Belgium, Austria, Prussia, &c. Many branches of industry were not represented. Not a single specimen of a branch of industry which has risen within a comparatively few years to so much importance, such as metallic bedsteads, was contributed from Birmingham. As respects absolute excellence of workmanship and utility in construction, the specimens of brass foundry of Birmingham manufactures in all its branches, plain and ornamental, were quite equal to the best continental work, and for the most part superior in all essential points. The report examined the relative merits of other industries, such as metal chasing, brass furniture, metal mounting, buttons, bronzes, steel pens, &c., in which, generally, the goods manufactured at Birmingham stood comparison, with few exceptions, both in point of design and execution, with any other exhibitors of the same class in the Exhibition.

Mr. Thomas Winkworth reported on silk manufactures. The following historical summary of the silk manufacture in this country is interesting. Silk had a recognised existence so early as the 14th century, and in 1454 an act was passed for the protection of women against the importation of foreign silk articles, such as "twined ribbons, chains, or girdles," which Act was from time to time renewed. In 1585, the manufacture received an impulse, by the arrival of a number of merchants and artisans from Antwerp, where the trade had been long carried on. Other foreign manufacturers occasionally settled in England, and in the reign of Elizabeth, the number of persons engaged in the production of silk goods was estimated at 40,000.

From this time the manufacture appears to have been subjected to a series of parliamentary regulations, generally at the instance of the masters or their workmen, or of both. At one time all foreign manufactured silks were absolutely prohibited; then allowed to come in free of duty; and occasionally certain descriptions only were prohibited, as in 1692, when the refugees who settled here after the revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685, actually obtained a patent, and ultimately an Act of Parliament, confining the manufacture of "lustrings and à la modes," to themselves, and prohibiting their importation. Under absolute prohibition or partial restriction, the silk manufacture languished; under free importation, as in or about 1685 to 1692, though the average annual imports amounted to nearly 700,000*l.*, it flourished. In 1697, the advocates of prohibition would appear to have reached their culminating point, for in that year the ports

were closed to all foreign manufactured silks, and, except during a sort of lucid interval of temporary relaxation, remained so until 1826.

The quantities of raw and thrown silk taken into consumption at certain intervals during this long period of prohibition, afford evidence of the slow progress of the trade under protection. The average for the years 1765, 1766, and 1767, was 715,000 lbs.; for 1785, 1786, and 1787, was 891,000 lbs.; for 1801 to 1812, 1,110,000 lbs.; for 1815, 1816, and 1817, 1,388,000 lbs.; and for 1821, 1822, and 1823, 2,325,000 lbs.

Under such influences, the vicissitudes of the trade were, of course, distressing. The king and the legislature were implored to devise, or to adopt at the suggestion of the sufferers, measures of relief, and large sums for the benefit of the starving operatives were occasionally subscribed. Balls, attended by the royal family, and at which only new silks of British manufacture were to be worn, were given, and riots in Spitalfields were not of unfrequent occurrence. Smuggling, disputes between masters and men as to wages, parliamentary interferences, destruction of silks in the loom, and even in wear, when supposed to be of foreign manufacture, were the rule—occasional quiet and profitable employment the exception.

At length a brighter star dawned upon the trade, correct principles began to take root in the manufacturing mind, and as if wearied with these fearful consequences of an erroneous and fitful policy, Parliament interfered, and in the memorable year 1826, but not without a long struggle with the majority of the manufacturers, foreign silk goods were permitted to come in at an import duty of 30 per cent., *ad valorem*. This heavy impost would seem to have been a measure of temporary expediency, for though it was reluctantly accepted as a kind of compromise, the effect was, as the advocates of free importation prophesied, to some extent more injurious than the state of things which obtained under total prohibition. In the latter condition, foreign silks, from certain peculiarities of length, width, and texture, were immediately recognised, and when detected, seized; while in the former case, being admitted on payment of duty, it was difficult to prove that smuggled goods had not passed through the Custom House in the regular way. The estimated result, according to Mr. Macgregor, was, that from 1827 to 1843, out of 6,332,132 lbs. of manufactured silk imported from France, only 3,170,112 lbs., or about one half of the quantity, paid duty.

This was a state of things so mischievous, both morally and economically, that in the year 1845, the nominal duty of 30 per cent. was reduced one-half, viz.:—to 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, or to five shillings per lb., at the option of the Commissioners of Customs. As the charge of the smuggler was from 12½ to 15 per cent., this branch of his illicit trade was nearly annihilated.

As respects raw and thrown silk, it is sufficient to observe that, except as to absolute prohibition, the policy pursued was almost equally suicidal with that by which the manufacturing branch was “protected,” but injured.

At one time heavy, at another lower duties were imposed, especially on the thrown material.

Of course, when in 1826, foreign manufactured silks were permitted to be imported at the duty of 30 per cent., *ad valorem*, the impulse given to that interest in England extended itself in corresponding proportions to the raw and thrown article. Accordingly we find, that whereas the largest previous importation was in 1823, when 2,400,000 lbs. were taken into consumption, in 1828 it amounted to nearly 4,300,000 lbs. But this prosperity was not of long duration, for while in the five years ending 1823, the average importations were 2,145,425 lbs., the average for the five years ending 1828 was only 3,660,083 lbs.; and in the following five years, only 3,695,918 lbs.

When, however, in 1845, the duty on manufactured silks was reduced as above, that on raw and thrown silks was totally repealed, and with the most beneficial results, for the throwsters who had hitherto been unable to find foreign markets for their products to any appreciable extent, began then to export in reality. In 1848, they exported 45,693 lbs., and in 1854 no less than 205,186 lbs., thus affording almost irrefragable evidence that a similar policy in manufactured silks would be followed by corresponding advantages.

It may be inferred from the foregoing hasty review, that the silk manufacture of this country forms no exception to the rule that important advantages may always be expected to result from the removal of prohibitory and protective duties. At the same time, its subsequent prosperity has not been altogether of that marked and progressive character which might have been anticipated. It is difficult to assign with certainty the causes of this, but probably one of them may be, that the acknowledged genius of this country lies in the production of goods suitable in quality and price for the million; and this presumption on the part of the dealers and consumers much confines the demand for British manufactures to the lower and cheaper grades. And nearly allied to this is that prevalent commercial spirit which, eager for the speedy acquisition of wealth, undervalues all other excellences but such low prices as lead to easy, extensive, and rapid sale. It is obvious that such influences must be depressing and deteriorative to a manufacturer whose raw material is very costly, and whose ultimate and permanent prosperity must be based on intrinsic excellence.

Nor ought it to be forgotten that fashion, whose dominion is as wide as it is capricious, and for the infraction of whose laws no merit can atone, holds her court in a neighbouring country. All, therefore, who are so dependent on her smiles as the dealers in silk goods, must seek the earliest intimations of her will, not in London but in Paris.

It has, also, often been supposed that a higher taste in the British manufacturer would add to his success. Doubtless, a high and pure taste is of advantage, but if the want of that alone interfered with his prosperity, he would not be slow to purchase the services of those who possessed it, whether natives or foreigners.

The existence still of an import duty on foreign manufactured silks has likewise, in the opinion of some, operated unfavourably to the British manufacturer, especially in foreign markets. The greater portion of the silk manufacturers of Manchester, acting upon this conviction, signed in 1852 a memorial to the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, praying for the total repeal of the impost in question.

It is, however, after all, consolatory to find that notwithstanding any prejudice which may arise from the above or any other causes, and also the heavy duties imposed in most foreign countries, not even excepting France, the export of British silk manufactures is to some extent increasing. Thus, according to the "Annual Statement of Trade and Navigation, &c., for 1854," recently issued, it appears that in declared value they amounted—

in 1850 to	£1,202,368,
in 1851 to	1,268,975,
in 1852 to	1,357,342,
in 1853 to	1,805,065,
and in 1854 to	1,507,160.

On the other hand our imports of foreign manufactured silks were, on the same authority—

in 1850	£2,430,369,
in 1851	1,676,384,
in 1852	1,728,695,
in 1853	2,228,083,
and in 1854	2,310,171.

As far as the returns for 1855 have transpired, they fully confirm this favourable statement of progressive increase of external demand, and which I have reason to know is especially the case as regards the United States.*

The silk manufacture of France is that of which the nation is perhaps most proud, and to which it justly attaches great importance. Like that of England, it has been subject to great vicissitudes, the results rather of political convulsions than of governmental interferences. It may in brief be stated with respect to its historical progress, that it owes its introduction from Sicily, Italy generally, and Spain, during the 14th and 15th centuries, to the civil and religious wars which then prevailed. The number of workpeople at Lyons engaged in this manufacture between 1650 and 1680, or about 200 years after its establishment in France, was estimated at between 9,000 and 12,000. After the revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685, the numbers fell to about 3,000 to 5,900, and so remained until 1750, or thereabouts, from which date to 1790 they gradually increased to 18,000. From 1792 to 1800, in consequence of the revolutionary period, and the wars resulting therefrom, the number of artisans was again reduced to between 3,000 and 4,000. By slow

* The value of British silk manufactures exported in 1855 was 21,314,407*l.*, and of Foreign silk manufactures imported 2,198,873*l.*

degrees, and following the march of returning order and security, they rose to 12,000, and so remained, with slight fluctuations, until the peace of 1814. In 1816 there were said to be as many as 20,000; in 1827, 27,000; in 1837, 40,000; in 1848, 50,000; and at this time there are probably not less than 60,000 to 80,000. But this statement only applies to the progress and present condition of Lyons and its environs. There are other important towns and districts in which the silk manufacture is carried on, the statistics of which, if collected, would no doubt exhibit similar results. The most important of these is St. Etienne, the seat of the ribbon manufacture, and in which, at this time, there are from 30,000 to 40,000 persons engaged. Considerable manufactures of silk and silk mixed fabrics are also established at Paris, Nîmes, Avignon, St. Chaumont, and in various parts of Picardy, Normandy, and Alsace. Altogether in the production of silk, and of mixed goods, silk being predominant, the number of artisans can scarcely be taken at less than from 150,000 to 180,000. It must be understood that in this and similar estimates there are only included those employed in weaving, but not the numbers engaged in the preliminary processes of reeling, throwing, dyeing, &c., or the subsequent ones, according to the nature of the article, of dressing, watering, or printing.

If with the foregoing statement of the number of artisans employed be connected the estimated value of the articles produced by them, we may form a tolerably correct idea of the importance of the French silk manufacture, as compared with that of our own country. This value in each of the years 1851, 1852, and 1853, is said to have amounted to not less than 15,000,000*l*.

The export from France of goods wholly or partly of silk, was estimated in 1851 at from 7,600,000*l*. to 8,800,000*l*. According to the same authority, it has since fallen to about 7,500,000*l*. Whether this retrograde movement arises from permanent or temporary causes, is not easily ascertainable, but it is worthy of remark that during the same period, the export of similar manufactures of this country advanced from 1,268,975*l*. in 1851, to 1,507,160*l*. in 1854.

Anomalous events must, however, always be expected where manufactures are at all in an exceptional position, and it is scarcely susceptible of a doubt, that if the artificial state occasioned by the duties on the importation of manufactured silks now imposed in France and other countries were removed, it would prove mutually advantageous. A greater security would thus be given to the manufacturer, and an injurious antagonism be removed. Added to this, the public of each country would be supplied at the lowest cost with what the silk manufacturers of each could easiest and best produce. M. Arlès Dufour, who, while not pretending to any knowledge of the precise effects which the abolition in France of the nominal import duty of 10 to 12 per cent. *ad valorem*, but practically of 33 per cent., and the introduction of free trade in this manufacture,

might eventuate, is of opinion that it would be profitable to both countries. England, he said, would cease to copy our rich fancy silks, and would devote its whole energy to the production of the low and middle qualities; while France, on the contrary, would apply itself with increased attention to the production of the former." He might have added, that under the united efforts of the manufacturers of both countries in the cultivation of their separate "specialités," such an impetus might be given to the silk trade as no other combination of circumstances could render possible.

The manufacture of broad silk and ribbons in Austria is principally confined to the district of Vienna, but the production and cultivation of the raw material extends over a large portion of its dominions in Italy.

"While prohibition of foreign silks continued," writes a manufacturing correspondent at Vienna, "we were compelled to confine the products of our looms to such articles as the caprices of luxury and fashion exacted of us, and having no foreign vent, our strength was dissipated on variety and perfection attained in nothing. During the last two years, however, that our frontiers have been opened, an improved taste has supervened, and manufacturers now address themselves to the careful production of such goods as best suit their abilities and taste, and with the most gratifying results, as the table I herewith send you will amply prove." Thus, while under prohibition in 1851, the import of silk and silk mixed goods amounted only to 286 lbs., and the exports to 176,384 lbs.; in 1853, the imports had increased to 46,190 lbs., and the exports to 863,000 lbs.; thus affording evidence still more remarkable than that supplied by any other country, of the beneficial effect of a liberal commercial policy. At this moment the import duty is only about 5s. 3d. per lb., or a fraction more than our own.

The number of looms generally at work in all branches of the silk manufacture gives employment to not less than 30,000 persons.

The exports of silk goods are principally to other parts of Germany and Italy; to the east, especially the Danubian Principalities; and to the United States, *via* Hamburg.

So far as quantity is concerned, the silk manufacture of Prussia may be considered as occupying a respectable position, and even in quality, a large proportion of the goods recently exhibited supply evidence of care in the selection of the raw material, and skill in workmanship, especially since 1851. To taste, it makes little or no pretension, and very few fancy silks were to be seen in this department. The Rhenish provinces constitute the principal seat of this branch of industry, which gives employment to between 50,000 and 60,000 persons.

The quantity of raw, thrown, and dyed silk imported in 1850 was 1,669,736 lbs.; and in 1853, 2,181,186 lbs. Of silk and silk mixed manufactures in 1850, 573,079 lbs.; and in 1853, 608,359 lbs. The exports of silk manufactures pure and mixed show an increase of nearly 100 per cent., as in 1850 they only amounted to 1,312,306 lbs., but in

1853 to 2,445,345 lbs. ; and, as far as the returns for 1854 are completed, they afford proof of continued, if not rapid, progress.

The principal external markets are France, England, the United States, and other parts of Germany ; but it is probable that as the Prussian silk manufacturers produce large quantities of low-priced and useful articles, many of the extra exports of 1853 may have found their way to Australia and other gold-producing countries.

The import duty on silk and on silk mixed manufactures is rather under 4s. per lb. on the former, and 2s. per lb. on the latter.

The manufacture of silks in Switzerland has arrived at a relative importance altogether remarkable, for though it was introduced into that country so early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, it is not until within a comparatively recent period that it has reached its present prosperous position. Zurich is the seat of the broad or garment silk manufacture, and Basle of the narrow or ribbon branch. The number of artisans employed in the two districts together is not less than 40,000, and is more probably 50,000. They have their schools of design, and avail themselves freely of all those other modern appliances, mechanical and artistic, which are so important to the profitable prosecution of this manufacture. Hitherto, however, their progress in the higher branches of the trade has not been sensibly developed, but in the lower and middle qualities of goods it has attained a degree of perfection highly creditable to their ingenuity and perseverance, and formidable to foreign competitors. This is especially the case as to France, where, notwithstanding the heavy import duty there exacted, the ribbons of Basle rival those of St. Etienne even in the fancy branches, and obtain an extensive sale.

There are about 8,000 or 9,000 looms generally at work at Basle, producing ribbons of the annual value of 1,500,000*l.* Though the proportion of workpeople employed in Zurich may be the same as in Basle, the results must be different, as many of the weavers in the latter district are partly occupied in agriculture, and do not therefore produce the same quantity of goods in the same space of time. This peculiarity has also the effect of lowering the standard of wages, and thus enables the manufacturer to offer his goods with more confidence as regards price in competition with those of other countries.

The import duty on thrown silk is about 3s. 6*d.* per lb., and 15 per cent. *ad valorem* on manufactured silks.

Of other European countries which exhibited silk manufactures little need be said. Whether from political circumstances, high tariffs, or total prohibition, the displays of Spain, Portugal, Greece, Tuscany (Florence), Belgium, Bavaria, and Baden, were inconsiderable in quantity, and failed to obtain a noticeable position. It must, however, be admitted that both in design and quality there was manifest improvement since 1851.

Although the British silk manufacturers may not vie with those of France in the production of the highest class of goods, yet, as respects

those other qualities referred to which constitute excellence, they are not inferior; and, as regards substance, combined with lowness of price, they may justly claim superiority over all other countries.

Perhaps the proper position and character of the British silk manufacture may be described as the production of goods suitable in price and quality to the greater number of English consumers, and sufficiently rich, varied, and tasteful to form the useful and morning costume of the higher and wealthy classes of society.

Mr. Digby Wyatt reported on furniture and decoration. The following is a sketch of the steps taken by the French Government for assisting the cabinet-makers' work in France.

It was to no less a minister than the great Colbert that France was indebted for the first step which laid the foundation of her modern pre-eminence in the manufacture of furniture. He it was who collected from every district of his own, as well as from other countries, the best cabinet-makers and upholsterers that could be met with, and by an edict of the year 1667, established in the Hôtel des Gobelins the "manufacture royale des meubles de France." It was of this factory that Boule appears to have been the worthy head, and from it issued those magnificent pieces of furniture which decorated Versailles, St. Germain, Marly, St. Cloud, the Louvre, and the Tuileries; and of which the few relics that have escaped the fury of revolutions, even in the present day serve as the models upon which much of the taste of the recent cabinet-makers' work of Paris is based.

Under Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette the genius of Riesner and Gouthière was fostered and brought to maturity; and after the fatal blow was given to advancement by the Revolution, it was to the enlightened patronage of Napoleon I. and his ministers François de Neufchâtel and Chaptal, that the talents of Percier and Fontaine, the architects, were brought to bear upon the design of that furniture which was so admirably carried out by the celebrated Jacob. There can be no question that the establishment of a ministry of commerce has produced a great influence upon French manufactures, including, of course, that now under consideration. Under the Restoration and Louis Philippe, six excellent systems have been permanently adopted, which are thoroughly well sustained under the present Emperor:—

- 1st. The encouragement of Ecoles de Dessin Lineaire, with proper courses of "Geometrie appliquée aux Arts, &c."
- 2nd. The formation and gratuitous opening to the public of technical museums of antiquity, such as portions of the Louvre, the Hotel Clugny, the Musée d'Artillerie, the Cabinet des Médailles, Sèvres, and the local collections in the departments, such as at Rouen, Lyons, Nismes, Montpellier, &c.
- 3rd. The systematic support by subsidies and by purchasing numbers of

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copies for general reference, of the publication of examples of art calculated to furnish good models to the manufacturer,—such as Willemín's "Monuments Français," Asselineau's "Armes et Armures Meubles, &c.," Chapuy's "Le Moyen Age Pittoresque," Du Sommerard's "Les Arts au Moyen Age," Lacroix and Seré's "Moyen Age et la Renaissance," and "Arts Somptuaires," Sylvestre's "Palæographie Universelle," &c.—works, which but for Government patronage would probably never have been undertaken.

- 4th. By taking care that every purchase, made for the fitting up of any of the Government or municipal establishments, was guided by the best taste, and determined by considerations of excellence rather than economy. The amount of patronage, thus judiciously bestowed, has proved a most salutary encouragement to many an artist, struggling to improve upon the productions of his wealthier fellow-producers.
- 5th. Adhering to the principle of the quinquennial expositions, and taking care, by the operation of intelligent juries, to insure an investigation into, and recognition of, every fluctuation in production, and every appearance of legitimate novelty or improvement.
- 6th. Keeping an anxious watch over the moral and physical condition of the working classes, rewarding every effort, emanating from themselves, made for their social elevation and well-being, and taking pains to find out and reward merit, in any shape in which it can be met with, among either men or masters.

To such a system we unfortunately have but little to offer in contrast, excepting accident; and too often what little good is done, is done by stealth, and in fear lest the slightest exercise of zeal should bring its exerciser into trouble, instead of assuring him sympathy and approbation; added to this in almost every matter of national expenditure affecting art and industry, we are continually sacrificing ends to means.

Fostered as French cabinet-making has been by the governing powers, we can be but little surprised to find it in the present day allied in a most intimate degree with what cannot be looked upon as other than fine art. Sculpture now plays so important a part in the production of almost every piece of furniture of any pretension, that any notice of the manufacture would be sadly imperfect, if it did not take cognisance of this hereditary connection, which has now existed almost uninterruptedly in France for many centuries. Previous to the 16th century, much carving appears to have been applied to the production of the old oak fittings of the churches and châteaux, but principally in the conventional style common to the works of the later mediæval ages. Sculpture of a pictorial nature, and conducted on the principles of the antique, was scarcely at all made use of until the spirit of the revival had taken firm hold of the national taste.

It was during the reigns of Charles VIII., Louis XII., and the first part

of that of Francis I., that those delicate arabesque enrichments, those graceful scrolls and vases, and that contrasted high and low relief of tender ornamentation, which characterize the purest age of the French Renaissance, were principally in vogue. When the influence of the school of Michael Angelo introduced a more ambitious style into France, the arabesques disappeared, and scrolls and flowers took their place; but though the drawing and composition of the figures were improved, the ornaments gradually became heavier until the end of Henry II.'s reign. Mythology, though often found in ludicrous connection with sacred subjects, more frequently usurped their place. The art of wood-carving was, however, still exercised by the great Renaissance masters:—thus, the doors of St. Maclou at Rouen were executed by Jean Goujon, as well as many of the decorations at the Château d'Ecouen, and the designs for the carved wood ornaments at Fontainebleau were made by Giulio Romano and Primaticcio. The museum of the Hôtel Clugny contains an *armoire* or large cupboard of walnut-wood, ornamented, like most of the *armoires* of that time, by caryatides; this piece of furniture was made and presented to the Abbot of Clairvaux by his monks in Henry II.'s reign.

Though many of the wood fittings at Versailles and St. Cloud have much of the splendour which mark the earlier part of Louis XIV.'s reign, a mannered and less refined style pervaded Europe during the greater part of the 17th century. In the reigns of Louis XIV. and XV. wood-carving was chiefly applied to furniture, altar decorations, or the execution of large gilt candlesticks; many, however, of the smaller works of art of this period are really good; they consisted principally of portraiture in the manner of Bernini, delicate imitations of flowers, groups of figures in the style *berger*, occasionally from the antique; little figures of beggars carved half in wood and half in ivory; and occasionally of statuettes in the style of Girardon; even these ceased at the great Revolution, and wood-carving did not begin to revive till the Restoration.

It would, however, be scarcely fair to the memory of a great man to overlook the extraordinary talents of Demontreuil, who was probably one of the best wood-carvers who ever lived. He fell upon evil days, for he had to struggle for his livelihood through the turmoils, miseries, and heart-burnings of the great Revolution.

According to the valuable results of the inquiries made for the Chamber of Commerce of Paris in 1851, it appears that in that city and in that year the number of master cabinet-makers amounted to 1,915, 178 of whom employed more than 10 workmen apiece, 844 employed from 2 to 10 workmen, 448 employed 1 only, and 445 worked single-handed. The value of the business in 1847 is said to have amounted to 27,982,950 francs; and the aggregate number of workmen engaged to about 8,559, 6,386 working by the piece, 2,173 working by the day, 13 working in other ways. Their daily wages were received in the following division: 162 received above 5 francs, 8,390 received between 3 and 5 francs, 7 received below 2 francs,

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these last having been men in distress. The maximum pay was 10 francs, the minimum 1·25 franc per day. The larger salaries were received by the superior trades, such as carvers, decorators, &c. To this list should be added 340 boys and 90 women and girls: of the latter 64 received wages, 36 by the piece, 28 by the day; their maximum pay was 4 francs, and their minimum 1·25, the mean rate being 2 francs. These females were mostly varnishers.

The greater number of master cabinet-makers in Paris appeared to belong, as they now do, to the 8th Arrondissement, where to the number of 1,093, they manufactured chiefly for the supply of the retail furniture sellers; the other arrondissements contain the remainder.

In comparison with the above details, it is interesting to observe that, in the year 1855, Paris alone has occupied between 25,000 and 30,000 workmen in cabinet-making and the businesses dependent upon it. M. Wolowski values the work produced in the whole at 81,000,000 francs, or about 3½ millions sterling, thus divided amongst the various trades:—

	Francs.
Furniture joiners and carpenters . . .	30,000,000
Chair and sofa makers . . .	5,000,000
Marquetry and fret cutters . . .	1,200,000
Wood carvers . . .	1,200,000
Furniture carvers (less artistic) . . .	1,000,000
Bed makers . . .	3,500,000
Marble workers for furniture . . .	2,000,000
Sawyers and wood merchants . . .	2,500,000
Upholsterers . . .	21,000,000
Turners for chairs and sofas . . .	2,000,000
Billiard-table makers . . .	1,400,000
Frame makers and moulding runners . . .	4,000,000
Gilders on wood . . .	5,000,000
Cane plaiters . . .	250,000
Ornamental turners . . .	1,000,000
Total . . .	81,050,000

In the unfortunate troubles of 1848 this trade suffered more than others. The value of the business fell from 27,982,950 francs to 6,436,067, a reduction of 77 per cent., and out of the 9,046 workmen previously employed, 7,014, or 78 per cent., were discharged in March and the three following months. The greatest sufferers were those working on their own account; and the minor masters' prices fell 25 per cent., in consequence not only of the interruption to trade, but also of a glut of the more common articles of furniture, caused by the attempts of those thrown out of employment to produce them at their own risk.

The report contains some highly interesting notices of other articles of decoration and furniture.

Mr. Charles Knight reported on drawing and modelling, letter-press and copper-plate printing, and photography. After some observations on printing, including the machine, ink, &c., the report stated that the average work of the French printers, on the whole, is superior to that of the English, as regards the evenness and clearness of the impression. The use of improved cylindrical machines has much to do with this. But there is another cause of inferiority not so easily to be overcome. Our paper is inferior, taking the general quality of printing paper. It is not made of so good material as the French; and although, considering the difficulty of obtaining good material, the manufacture has been greatly improved, yet an English sheet of paper has not that substance and surface, without which the most careful printing cannot be effective. The paper duty, compelling the use of expedients for keeping down price, produces that delusive article of commerce which, bleached, sized, and glazed into a sheet of white paper—a product of much rubbish and little rag—is rotten or harsh—has one rough side and one smooth—resists ink, unless saturated with water—has to be vamped up again, after printing, with rollers and hydraulic presses; and, when formed into a book, requires to be handled with a tenderness that pre-supposes books not made for use.

In all the arts that belong to typography, or are associated with it, the tendency of the various discoveries and improvements of modern times has been to attain a higher excellence in combination with a lower price. The printing-machine is being perfected, so as to produce something better, as well as cheaper than hand labour. The electro processes applied to printing have the same tendency. They have extended the range of typography, as in nature-printing, and they have improved its old methods. When we have obtained an electrotype from a woodcut, we have something better than the original. We have a copy which will not wear so quickly, and we can produce other copies from the unprinted block. This multiplication of copies was done by stereotyping; but the copy in type-metal was necessarily inferior to an electrotype. The mechanical applications of colour in printing, whether typography or lithography, have produced incalculable advantages for art and science, which need no illustration. One fact, however, of the extension of the demand for a publication of the highest importance in scientific inquiry, by the mechanical application of colour, is too remarkable to be passed over. The beautiful geological map of France issued by the Government,—“*Tableau d'Assemblage de la Carte Géologique de la France*,”—was originally coloured by hand; it was sold for 21 francs, and the entire sale never reached 250 copies. The Directors of the Government Printing-office determined, large as the map is, to make the bold attempt to colour it by lithography. Twenty-three colouring stones, besides the outline stone, were necessary to effect this. After two years' experiment, the map thus produced by twenty-four different impressions was published for $3\frac{1}{2}$ francs—one-sixth of the price of the hand-coloured map. In five years 3,000 copies have been sold. It is

impossible to over-estimate the benefit to the industrial resources of France by the power thus conferred upon the agriculturist, the miner, and even the humblest excavator, of studying the structure of the earth upon which they labour.

Captain Fowkes reported on military art, and gave also a series of experiments on the strength and resistance of various woods.

The testing machine consisted of a hydraulic press with piston-rod furnished with a cross-head, working horizontally in cast iron guides, and having a connecting rod attached to it reaching to the end of the guides; a small valve in the cylinder, furnished with a steelyard and moveable weight, gave the means of ascertaining to a great nicety the exact amount of pressure applied.

As it was desirable, for obtaining the best comparative results, that the woods should all be tested as nearly as possible under similar circumstances, a standard dimension was sought which should be the greatest common to all the specimens, and it was found that a scantling of two inches square, with a length of from fourteen to sixteen inches was the greatest that could be obtained to fulfil this condition; a few examples would not quite come up to this scantling, and one or two would not quite give the required length, but on the whole it was thought better to reduce the results obtained from these by calculation, than to cut down the size of all the pieces operated on for the sake of the few. The Australian specimens were generally from four feet six inches to five feet in length, and about two inches square, and these were first experimented on at these dimensions, and afterwards reduced to the fixed standard.

The mode of proceeding was as follows—the specimens were first reduced to the standard dimension, squared and planed perfectly true, labelled with a number, and entered in a catalogue.

Each piece was then carefully weighed, and its specific gravity calculated.

The first experiment made was to ascertain the breaking weight, the specimen being supported at the ends, and the strain being applied at right angles to its length, midway between the points of support.

The bearing chosen as the standard was one foot, that being the greatest that was common to all the specimens, and two flat iron bars were accordingly fixed to the extremities of the guides of the machine at that distance apart, to serve as the points of support; a piece of iron, having an opening in it of three inches square, was shackled on to the end of the connecting rod of the machine through which the piece of wood was passed; the two ends were then brought to bear equally on the points of support, and the square ring above-mentioned adjusted to the centre; a piece of strong leather was interposed between the ring and the wood to prevent any abrasion of the fibre which was likely otherwise to take place under heavy strains; the weight of the connecting rod and ring was then

carefully counterpoised so as to avoid any disturbance of the strain from its true horizontal direction, and a slip of paper was fastened by beeswax to the upper part of the specimen at its centre, on which to note the deflection.

The weight on the steelyard having been placed at zero, the pump was slowly worked until the steelyard showed the first symptoms of motion; a straight edge was then applied to the two fulcra or points of support, and a line ruled across a slip of paper attached to the specimen and marked 0. Experience showed that in general no very perceptible deflection took place until the strain had reached 500 kilogrammes (1,102 lbs. English), and to follow out the principle of treating all the woods alike, the plan adopted therefore was to mark the deflection at each successive 500 kilogrammes of strain until it reached 3,000 (6,612 lbs.). As it was found that the increase of deflection became more rapid as the point of fracture was approached, the deflection was noted at intervals of 250 kilogrammes (551 lbs.) instead of 500 kilogrammes, when the strain exceeded 3,000 kilogrammes.

The exact point of fracture was easily discernable, as the steelyard of the machine, which had been gradually rising under the pressure, instantly fell, and could not be raised by any subsequent action of the pumps.

This experiment was repeated with as many examples of each kind of wood as could be obtained, and the mean noted, throwing out such experiments as were evidently unsatisfactory from being performed on a faulty specimen, or from any other cause.

In order to ascertain the power of the woods to bear a crushing strain, a number of small pieces, each measuring exactly an inch cube, were cut from the specimens and squared and planed true, a square bar of steel was introduced into the ring of the machine, having its ends bearing on the supports above-mentioned, and the cubic inch specimens were each submitted to a crushing strain between the ring and the steel bar; this strain was applied both in the direction of the grain and also in a transverse direction, forming two distinct series of experiments.

In applying the strain in a longitudinal direction, the specimen having been placed in position, a slip of paper was fastened to the top of the ring, and the steelyard having been brought to zero, and noted as before, the amount which each specimen yielded to the crushing strain was marked on the paper at each 500 kilogrammes (1,102 lbs.) in the same manner as has been already explained in the case of the deflection, until it finally gave way, the point of failure being well marked, as in the former experiment.

When the specimens were submitted to a transverse crushing strain, the failure, instead of being marked and sudden, as in the former cases, took place by degrees, the fibre gradually yielding from the first moment of the strain being applied, but no actual fracture taking place, the method of

proceeding was therefore changed, and all the specimens having been submitted to the same strain, the amount of compression which each experienced was carefully marked and measured as before.

As before-mentioned, the specimens of wood from Australia were experimented upon separately, as in the first experiment, but with a bearing of four feet instead of one.

In recording the results of these experiments a separate table is first devoted to each description of wood, in which is given a detailed account of the various tests to which it has been submitted, remarking on any peculiarity either in the specimen or in its mode of fracture or conduct under pressure, and adding such particulars as could be had concerning each. The order followed is the same throughout, viz. :—first, the name of the colony in which the wood is produced, then the various denominations under which it is known, whether botanical, aboriginal, or colonial ; a short description follows, containing such information as could be obtained concerning the description of tree producing the timber, its abundance or scarcity in the colony, its proximity to the coast or to navigable rivers, the purposes to which the timber is applied in the colony, and the estimation in which it is held there for strength, durability under various circumstances, or any other valuable quality that it may possess ; where its cost in the colony, per foot cube, could be ascertained, it is given, and the diameter and height of the tree is added, as affording an index of the size of timber possible to be obtained. Then follows the history of the experiments in the order described above.

At the end, a *résumé* of the whole is given in a series of four tables, in which the woods are placed in the order of their value in that particular experiment to which the table refers.

Table No. 1. Specific gravity.

„ No. 2. Transverse breaking weight.

„ No. 3. Crushing strain in the direction of the fibre.

„ No. 4. Transverse crushing strain.

As for most purposes a timber acquires additional value from combining the properties of strength and lightness, a fifth table is added in which the woods experimented upon are arranged in the order in which they stand as to the ratio of their strength to their specific gravity.

The steelyard of the testing machine having been graduated for French weights, the results of the experiments were noted in kilogrammes, and afterwards reduced into English lbs. avoirdupois and decimal parts, and the deflections were marked in inches and decimals of an inch. This will account for the apparently irregular intervals at which the amounts of deflection and yielding were noticed.

TABLE I.

In the following Table the Woods are arranged in the Order of their Specific Gravity.

Name of Wood and Colony—Specific Gravity, Distilled Water, being 1·000.

Black Heart Ebony, Jamaica	-	1·193	Black Butt, N S Wales	-	0·891
Box of Illawarra, N S Wales	-	1·170	Kaleeri-balli, British Guiana	-	0·870
Lignum Vite, Jamaica	-	1·170	Tamarind, Jamaica	-	0·870
Small Leaf	do	1·169	Stringy Bark, N S Wales	-	0·864
Bastard Box, N S Wales	-	1·115	Swamp Mahogany, do	-	0·864
Mountain Ash, do	-	1·110	Prune, Jamaica	-	0·864
Kakaralli, do	-	1·103	Yellow Sanders, do	-	0·859
Sipiri or Greenheart, British Guiana	-	1·089	Wild Orange, do	-	0·850
Sipiri or Greenheart, do	-	1·052	Blue Gum, N S Wales	-	0·843
Neesberry Bullet Tree, Jamaica	-	1·046	Beech, Jamaica	-	0·843
Wallaba, British Guiana	-	1·035	Sirabuliballi, British Guiana	-	0·838
Brown Ebony, do	-	1·034	Buhuradda	do	0·814
Iron Bark, N S Wales	-	1·032	Buckati	do	0·812
Broad-leaved Iron Bark, do	-	1·016	Houbaballi	do	0·810
Woolly Butt, do	-	1·005	Baracara	do	0·807
Water Gum, do	-	1·001	Sweet Orange, Jamaica	-	0·785
Letter Wood, British Guiana	-	0·999	French Oak	do	0·774
Red Bully Tree, Jamaica	-	0·999	White Cedar, British Guiana	-	0·771
Cuamaraoor Tonka, British Guiana	-	0·987	Broad Leaf, Jamaica	-	0·771
Iron Wood, Jamaica	-	0·987	Wild Tamarind	do	0·750
Sweet Wood, do	-	0·973	Hickory, N S Wales	-	0·748
True Box of Camden, N S Wales	-	0·970	Locust Tree, British Guiana	-	0·707
Fustic, Jamaica	-	0·966	Fiddle Wood, Jamaica	-	0·707
Cog Wood, N S Wales	-	0·961	Cartan, British Guiana	-	0·703
Satin Candlewood, Jamaica	-	0·956	Prickle Yellow, Jamaica	-	0·691
Mahogany, N S Wales	-	0·952	Box-wood	do	0·690
Bastard Cabbage Bark, Jamaica	-	0·945	Purple Heart, British Guiana	-	0·679
White Dogwood	- do	0·943	Locust Tree, Jamaica	-	0·675
Monkey Pot, British Guiana	-	0·941	Lancewood	do	0·675
Gynip, Jamaica	-	0·934	Green Mahogany, do	-	0·664
Black Dogwood, do	-	0·930	Forest Swamp Oak, N S Wales	-	0·661
Grey Gum, N S Wales	-	0·927	Lignum Vite, Jamaica	-	0·651
Mora, British Guiana	-	0·922	Bartaballi, British Guiana	-	0·640
Wild Mahogany, Jamaica	-	0·921	Yacca, Jamaica	-	0·626
Cashaw	- do	0·916	Crabwood, British Guiana	-	0·603
Ducabilli, British Guiana	-	0·910	Cedar, Jamaica	-	0·576
Wild Orange, Jamaica	-	0·908	Calabash, do	-	0·557
Bullet Tree (Bastard), do	-	0·902	Bitterwood, do	-	0·555
Cabacalli, British Guiana	-	0·893	Silverballi, British Guiana	-	0·546
			Blue Mahoe, Jamaica	-	0·536

TABLE II.—BREAKING WEIGHTS.

In this Table the Woods are arranged according to their Value in the First Series of Experiments.

Name of Wood and Colony—Breaking Weight reduced to 12 in. by 2 in. sq.

		Ibs.			Ibs.
Iron Wood, Jamaica	-	14991·2	Monkey Pot, British Guiana	-	10692·3
Box of Illawarra, N S Wales	-	13831·6	Sipiri or Greenheart, do	-	10471·8
Black Heart Ebony, Jamaica	-	13580·3	Cuamaraoor Tonka	do	10471·8
Small Leaf	do	12698·6	Wild Orange, Jamaica	-	10141·1
Satin Candlewood	do	12235·5	Broad-leaf Iron Bark, N S Wales	-	10004·4
Sipiri or Greenheart, British Guiana	-	12215·6	Sirabuliballi, British Guiana	-	9920·7
Wamara or Brown Ebony, do	-	12125·3	Neesberry Bullet Tree, Jamaica	-	9920·7
Wild Mammee, do	-	11640·2	Mountain Ash, N S Wales	-	9863·3
Bastard Box, N S Wales	-	11450·6	Mora, British Guiana	-	9700·2
Letter Wood, British Guiana	-	11256·6	Kakaralli, N S Wales	-	9590·0
Iron Bark, N S Wales	-	10870·8	Yellow Sanders, Jamaica	-	9590·0
			White Dogwood	do	9479·7

TABLE II.—continued.

	lbs.		lbs.
Buhuradda, British Guiana	9479.7	Woolly Butt, N S Wales	6272.0
Ducaballi do	9369.5	Forest Swamp Oak do	6214.6
Sweet Wood, Jamaica	9149.1	Locust Tree, British Guiana	6172.9
Beech do	9038.8	Broad Leaf, Jamaica	6062.7
Mahogany, N S Wales	8994.7	Black Dogwood do	6062.7
Black Butt do	8741.2	Locust Tree do	6062.7
Fustic, Jamaica	8597.9	Green Mahogany do	6062.7
Cog Wood, do	8542.8	Stringy Bark, N S Wales	5795.9
Baracara, British Guiana	8499.7	Prickle Yellow, Jamaica	5731.9
Bartaballi do	8465.6	Wild Tamarind do	5643.7
Swamp Mahogany, N S Wales	8281.6	Fiddle Wood do	5511.5
Grey Gum do	7828.5	Box Wood do	5511.5
Hickory do	7795.4	Wallaba, British Guiana	5511.5
Water Gum do	7760.1	Crabwood do	5511.5
Buckati, British Guiana	7716.1	Lignum Vitæ, Jamaica	5511.5
Lance Wood, Jamaica	7716.1	Red Bully Tree do	5511.5
Wild Mahogany, Jamaica	7385.4	True Box of Camden, N S Wales	5443.1
Cabacalli, British Guiana	7167.1	Cartan, British Guiana	4960.3
White Cedar do	7167.1	Houbaballi do	4737.7
Blue Gum, N S Wales	7167.1	Sweet Orange, Jamaica	4629.7
Bastard Cabbage Bark, Jamaica	6724.0	Calabash do	4518.2
Tamarind do	6724.0	Wild Orange do	4409.2
Bastard Bullet Tree do	6724.0	French Oak do	4409.2
Prune do	6613.8	Siruballi, British Guiana	4299.0
Gynip do	6613.8	Blue Mahoe, Jamaica	4299.0
Purple Heart, British Guiana	6393.3	Bitter Wood do	3747.8
Cashaw, Jamaica	6393.3	Cedar do	3196.7
Kaieeri-balli, British Guiana	6393.3	Yacca do	2204.6

TABLE III.—CRUSHING STRAINS.

In this Table the Woods are arranged according to their Value in the Third Series of Experiments.

Name of Wood and Colony—Crushing Weight, applied in direction of Fibre. Dimensions, one inch cube.

	lbs.		lbs.
Black Heart Ebony, Jamaica	18959.5	Mountain Ash do	11020.0
Iron Wood or Red Wood do	17636.8	White Cedar, British Guiana	9920.7
Sipiri Bibiru, or Greenheart, British Guiana	15432.2	Buckati do	9920.7
Small Leaf, do	15432.2	Sirabuliballi do	9920.7
Neesberry Bullet Tree, do	14329.9	Sweet Wood, Jamaica	9920.7
Letter Wood or Snake Wood, do	14105.6	Lignum Vitæ do	9920.7
Wild Mammee, do	13227.6	Iron Bark, N S Wales	9920.7
Ducaballi, do	13227.6	Cashaw, Jamaica	9920.7
Rough-leaved, Rough-barked Iron Bark, N S Wales	13227.6	Prune do	9920.7
Kakaralli, British Guiana	13227.6	Bastard Cabbage Bark Tree, do	9920.7
Wild Orange, Jamaica	13227.6	Red Bully Tree, do	9920.7
Wamara or Brown Ebony, British Guiana	12566.2	Box of Illawarra, N S Wales	9920.7
Satin Candlewood, Jamaica	12562.8	Grey Gum do	9920.7
Buhuradda, British Guiana	12125.3	Purple Heart, British Guiana	9920.7
Monkey Pot do	12125.3	Mahogany, N S Wales	9920.7
Cog Wood, Jamaica	12122.0	Cabacalli, British Guiana	9920.7
Sipiri, Greenheart, British Guiana	12125.3	Mora do	9920.7
Fustic, Jamaica	12125.3	Cartan do	9920.7
Cumara or Tonka, British Guiana	11463.9	Bastard Box, N S Wales	9700.7
Black Dogwood, Jamaica	11023.0	Tamarind, Jamaica	9256.8
Willow-leaved Bastard Bullet Tree, do	11023.0	True Box of Camden, N S Wales	8818.0
Water Gum, N S Wales	11020.0	Blue Gum of Camden do	8818.4
Black Butt do	11020.0	Swamp Mahogany do	8818.4
		Stringy Bark, Camden do	8818.4
		Bartaballi, British Guiana	8818.4
		Baracara do	8818.4
		Kaieeri-balli do	8818.4

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TABLE III.—*continued.*

	lbs.		lbs.
Simeri or Locust Tree, do	8818·4	Woolly Butt, N S Wales	—
Crab Wood, do	8818·4	Hickory do	7052·8
Box Wood, Jamaica	8818·4	Wallaba, British Guiana	6613·8
Gynip do	8818·4	Lance Wood, Jamaica	6613·8
Prickle Yellow do	8818·4	Cedar do	6613·8
Beech do	8818·4	French Oak do	6613·8
Blue Mahoe do	8818·4	Fiddle Wood do	6613·8
Wild Mahogany, do	8818·4	Yacca do	6613·8
Wild Tamarind, do	8705·8	Yellow Sanders do	6613·8
Siruballi, British Guiana	7716·1	Calabash do	5511·5
Green Mahogany, Jamaica	7716·1	Forest Swamp Oak, N S Wales	5511·5
Locust do	7716·1	Houbaballi, British Guiana	5511·5
Broad Leaf do	7716·1	Bitter Wood, Jamaica	5511·5

TABLE IV.

In this Table the Woods are placed according to their Value in the Fourth Series of Experiments.

Name of Wood and Colony—Specimens, 1 in. square. Decimals of an inch.

Lignum Vita, Jamaica	0·01	Cartan, British Guiana	0·35
Iron Wood or Red Wood, do	0·02	Forest Swamp Oak, N S Wales	0·35
Black Heart Ebony, do	0·02	Lance Wood, Jamaica	0·37
Cuamara or Tonka, British Guiana	0·06	Simeri, or Forest Tree, British Guiana	0·37
Small Leaf, Jamaica	0·07	Sirabuliballi	0·40
Sipiri or Greenheart, British Guiana	0·08	Baracara, do.	0·42
Ducaballi, do	0·09	Yellow Sanders, Jamaica	0·43
Cog Wood, Jamaica	0·09	Green Mahogany, do	0·43
Neesberry Bullet Tree, do	0·09	Grey Gum, New South Wales	0·44
Fustic, do	0·09	Locust, Jamaica	0·45
Purple Heart, British Guiana	0·10	Wild Mammee, British Guiana	0·45
Letter Wood or Snake Wood, do	0·10	French Oak, Jamaica	0·46
Mountain Ash, N S Wales	0·12	Crab Wood, British Guiana	0·46
Wamara or Brown Ebony, British Guiana	0·11	Bartaballi, do	0·46
Satin Candlewood, Jamaica	0·11	Hickory, New South Wales	0·47
Gynip, do	0·15	True Box of Camden, do	0·50
Black Dogwood, do	0·17	Cedar, Jamaica	0·50
Water Gum, N S Wales	0·18	Calabash, do	0·50
Red Bully Tree, Jamaica	0·19	Yacca, do	0·50
Mora, British Guiana	0·19	White Cedar, British Guiana	0·50
Wild Orange, Jamaica	0·19	Broad Leaf, Jamaica	0·51
Sweet Wood, do	0·20	Houbaballi, British Guiana	0·51
Kakaralli, British Guiana	0·20	Wild Mahogany, Jamaica	0·52
Woolly Butt, N S Wales	0·21	Iron Bark, New South Wales	0·52
Cashaw, Jamaica	0·25	Stringy Bark of Camden, do	0·52
Cabacalli, British Guiana	0·26	Siruballi, British Guiana	0·56
Blue Gum of Camden, N S Wales	0·26	Buhuradda, do	0·56
Box Wood, Jamaica	0·28	Black Butt, New South Wales	0·56
Prune, do	0·28	Bitterwood, Jamaica	0·57
Kaieri-balli, British Guiana	0·28	Rough-leaved, Rough-barked Iron Bark	0·57
Willow-leaved Bastard Bullet Tree, Jamaica	0·30	Monkey Pot, British Guiana	0·59
Beech, do	0·31	Prickle Yellow, Jamaica	0·59
Buckati, British Guiana	0·33	Fiddlewood, do	0·61
Mahogany, N S Wales	0·33	Blue Mahoe, do	0·65
Bastard Cabbage Bark Tree, Jamaica	0·34	Wild Tamarind, do	0·64
Tamarind, do	0·35	Box of Illawarra, New South Wales	Fracture at 2000
		Bastard Box, do	do. 1800
		Wallaba, British Guiana	49 at 2000

TABLE V.

The Ratio of the Breaking Weight to the Specific Gravity of each Wood.

Name of Wood—Breaking Weight divided by Specific Gravity.

Iron Wood	-	-	15188	Mountain Ash	-	-	8385
Bartaballi	-	-	13228	Locust Tree	-	-	8731
Satin Candle Wood	-	-	12782	Blue Gum	-	-	8501
Sirabuliballi	-	-	11838	Grey Gum	-	-	8444
Box of Illawarra	-	-	11821	Prickle Yellow	-	-	8290
Brown Ebony	-	-	11726	Lignum Vite	-	-	8210
Buhuradda	-	-	11645	Calabash	-	-	8111
Sipiri or Green Heart	-	-	11611	Cabacalli	-	-	8026
Lance Wood	-	-	11431	Blue Mahoe	-	-	8020
Black Heart Ebony	-	-	11383	Mild Mahogany	-	-	8019
Monkey Pot	-	-	11362	Box Wood	-	-	7987
Wild Orange	-	-	11278	Silverballi	-	-	7873
Letter Wood	-	-	11267	Broad Leaf	-	-	7863
Small Leaf	-	-	10862	Fiddle Wood	-	-	7794
Beech	-	-	10722	Yellow Sanders	-	-	7790
Cuamara, or Tonka	-	-	10609	Water Gum	-	-	7752
Iron Bark	-	-	10533	Tamarind	-	-	7728
Baracara	-	-	10532	Prune	-	-	7654
Mora	-	-	10520	Wild Tamarind	-	-	7524
Hickory	-	-	10421	Bastard Bullet Tree	-	-	6454
Ducaballi	-	-	10296	Kaleeri-bulli	-	-	7348
Bastard Box	-	-	10269	Bastard Cabbage Bark	-	-	7115
White Dogwood	-	-	10052	Gynip	-	-	7081
Rough-leaved Iron Bark	-	-	9846	Cartan	-	-	7055
Black Butt	-	-	9810	Cashan	-	-	6979
Sipiri or Green Heart	-	-	9615	Bitter Wood	-	-	6752
Swamp Mahogany	-	-	9585	Stringy Bark	-	-	6708
Buckati	-	-	9502	Black Dogwood	-	-	6519
Bullet Tree	-	-	9483	Woolly Butt	-	-	6240
Mahogany	-	-	9448	Sweet Orange	-	-	5904
Purple Heart	-	-	9415	Houbaballi	-	-	5849
Timber Sweet Wood	-	-	9402	French Oak	-	-	5694
Forest Swamp Oak	-	-	9401	True Box of Camden	-	-	5611
White Cedar	-	-	9295	Cedar	-	-	5549
Crab Wood	-	-	9140	Red Bully Tree	-	-	5518
Green Mahogany	-	-	9124	Wallaba	-	-	5325
Locust	-	-	8981	Wild Orange	-	-	5010
Fustic	-	-	8900	Yacca	-	-	3521
Cog Wood	-	-	8889				

No. LVII.—EXHIBITION OF 1851.

*Third Report of the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851.**[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]*

THE Commissioners, after recapitulating the principal feature of their second report, showed that in consequence of the Parliamentary grants of 150,000*l.* added to a similar sum of 165,000*l.* advanced by themselves out of the surplus fund, they proceeded to make purchases of land, which absorbed the whole sum, and left a balance in their hands of 20,000*l.* to meet their current expenses and provide for contingencies. A further grant of 27,500*l.*

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was made by Parliament, by which means a total fund of 342,500*l.* has been obtained. This amount sufficed to cover the whole outlay connected with—1st, The formation of the great roads, and necessary sewers; 2nd, The purchase of the different leasehold interests on the property, rendered necessary by the construction of those roads; 3rd, The redemption of the land tax and other charges on the estate; and further, every other items of expense connected with the satisfactory preparation of the property for its destined national object, and with the permanent development of its great capabilities. An Act of Parliament has been obtained. The value of the Kensington Gore Estate at the present time exceeds its cost; and the property near the estate is known to have much increased, in consequence of the character imparted by it to the neighbourhood. The building of the Crystal Palace was purchased by Messrs. Fox, Henderson & Co. for 70,000*l.* The financial position of the Commission exhibited the following items. The exhibition surplus was not less than 186,436*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* In addition to that amount, 157,500*l.* was received on account of the Parliamentary votes of the Sessions 1852-53 and 1854-55, and 5,401*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* from rents and miscellaneous receipts, making a total of 349,338*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* The payments were 247,595*l.* 8*s.* 7*d.* on account of the estate for land purchases, tenants' compensation, road-making, and other items, leaving a balance in hand on the 31st December, 1855, of 101,742*l.* 16*s.* 10*d.* The whole amount will be required for the Harrington Estate, and other purchases of land not yet completed, &c. Some changes were made in the constitution of the Commission, consequent upon their permanent incorporation and the new relations which they entered, owing to the liberal contributions made by Parliament towards the purchase of land, by which some superintendence by the Lords of the Treasury would henceforth be granted. The Commissioners then referred to the formation of the Department of Science and Art, which comprises the Museum of Practical Geology, the School of Mines, the Geological Survey, the Museum of Irish Industry, and the Royal Dublin Society, together with a collection of the most perfect models and illustration in Science and Art, and a school of the highest class in Science and Art for the instruction of Students and the education of Teachers for the local institutions. Mr. Cole and Dr. Playfair were appointed Secretaries. The Royal College of Chemistry was incorporated with the Department; and with it are incorporated the Birmingham and Midland Institute, the Edinburgh Museum of Industry, and other Provincial Schools of Science. The Department of Science and Art hitherto connected with the Board of Trade was transferred to the Committee of Privy Council of Education. The Department, now occupying Marlborough House, will shortly be removed to Kensington Gore Estate.

The Commissioners then proceeded to consider the locality of the National Gallery, referring to the report of the Committee of the House of Commons recommending to accept the offer of a site on the Kensington Gore

Estate. Allusions were made to the proposed National Portrait Gallery and Animal Produce Museum, Museum of Inventions and Patent Museum, Educational Museum, Museum of Domestic Economy, Architectural Museum and Bernal Collection, and more especially to the promotion of industrial instruction, which was strongly supported by the Chamber of Commerce.

The Museum building of corrugated iron is now in course of erection on the Estate, which is not only indestructible in its character, but is susceptible also of being moved to any spot at a trifling cost. The building is 266 feet long, 126 feet wide, and 30 feet high. It contains two galleries, extending the whole length of the building, and affords a total exhibiting area of 6,400 square yards, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres. It is constructed throughout of corrugated iron, with the necessary provision for securing light, warmth, and ventilation.

The report is signed by His Royal Highness Prince Albert and all the Commissioners, and dated 20th April, 1856.

NO. LVIII.—PUBLIC MONEYS.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Receipts, Issue, and Audit of Public Moneys in the Exchequer, the Pay Office, and the Audit Department.

THE Committee was appointed on the 24th April, 1856; and on the 2nd May, the following members were nominated:—Sir Francis Baring, Sir Henry Willoughby, Sir James Graham, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Messrs. Henley, Williams, Wilson, Bowyer, Ellice, Hankey, Peacocke, James M'Gregor, Cardwell, George Alexander Hamilton, and Lord Stanley.

On the 2nd July, the Committee reported that owing to the importance and extent of the subject, the incomplete state of the inquiry, and the advanced period of the session, they would best discharge their duty by laying the evidence before the House.

The witnesses examined were Lord Monteagle de Brandon, Comptroller of the Exchequer; Mr. William George Anderson, Principal Clerk in the Treasury; Mr. Ernest Albert Hoffay, Assistant Paymaster General; Mr. Charles Wine, Inspector of Naval and Military Accounts under the Commissioners of Audit; Messrs. Edward Romilly, Commissioner of Audit, and Charles Macaulay, Secretary to the Board; Mr. Henry Thomas Dundas Bathurst, Inspector of Accounts of the Woods, Forests, and Works; and Mr. John Hollings, Clerk in the War Department.

The following are the principal items of the evidence:—

SERIES A.

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TREASURY.

The power of the Treasury with regard to any payment made out of the gross revenue is limited by the charges legally made upon the gross revenue previous to the Act of 1854, and not included in the schedules of that Act. Yet the Treasury are left with full power of making repayments and drawbacks and allowances of that kind, because they were legally payable before.

The authorities under which Treasury minutes are issued are very multifarious indeed, and many of them are issued under Act of Parliament; but the functions of the Treasury are so varied, that if there was not a power of directing by minute (and the Board can only speak by its minute), even in circumstances in which there is no parliamentary authority, the public business could not go on for half an hour. This use of Treasury minutes is strictly according to law. Minutes frequently require more formal instruments, called warrants, to carry them into effect.

The Lords of the Treasury have a general legal authority for issuing Treasury minutes; how that is to be applied, whether right or wrong, depends upon the application of the power. The power of the Treasury, giving its directions by minute, which purports to be a minute of the Board of Treasury issued by a quorum then and there present, directing that minute for the public service, is a right which has never been questioned, and which is absolutely necessary for the public service, with or without an Act of Parliament. There are certain acts of the Board of Treasury which require a warrant; but that warrant rests on the authority of a minute.

The powers of the Treasury for revenue purposes are common law powers, at least they are not uniformly resting upon any statute; they are derived from usage, it being the unquestioned right of the department, subject to parliamentary authority, and subject to control of law if exercised improperly. Every Treasury letter presupposes a minute.

The powers of the Treasury are derived from a patent which puts in commission the powers of the Lord High Treasurer, who was an ancient constitutional officer, having very extensive powers over both revenue and expenditure, and whatever powers the Lord High Treasurer formerly possessed are vested in the Lords of the Treasury, unless modified or controlled by Act of Parliament.

Money being voted by Parliament is voted to the Crown; the Crown gives the money to its treasurer to dispose of, and the treasurership being in commission, the Board of Treasury have that power.

The Treasury spends but little itself, but it can control those by whom the public money is applied. It is a department of check on those departments, to take care that they do not get more than Parliament has granted.

The Treasury is, to a limited extent, a department authorizing expenditure upon some of the miscellaneous votes. It has no control over the application of any portion of the moneys voted for Army services; it has no control

over the application of any portion of the moneys voted for the Navy services, or the Commissariat, or any other military services; but it is the department whose duty, according to its constitution, should be to control those departments through which the expenditure is conducted.

The Treasury has greater power of exercising control than the Exchequer, because it can call upon any department for explanation if it finds that the department is spending a larger proportion of their grants than the Treasury think they ought to have spent in a certain period, and it can call upon them to revise their accounts and their estimates, that they may satisfy the Treasury that they have made a sufficient provision for carrying on the public service for the year. This actually occurred last year, and the whole of those departments were brought before Parliament to demand supplemental estimates. The control of the Exchequer would have come too late; because the Exchequer, when it came to the last issue upon the votes, would say, "We can issue no more for army services or for the navy;" and unless the Treasury had exercised its control in time, they must have been in the predicament of not having sufficient moneys to carry on those great services.

It is the duty of every department carefully to anticipate, as far as they can, the wants of their own departments for the coming year, and to submit their proposed estimates to the Treasury for sanction, and, upon the sanction of the Treasury being given, to submit them to Parliament, and obtain a Parliamentary grant.

Parliament having granted certain sums of money to various departments of the State, whether for the army, navy, or even for civil service purposes, imposes upon these departments the responsibility of spending that money, subject to the general control of the Treasury, as laid down by the Appropriation Act and other Acts of Parliament. The detailed application of the moneys granted for those great services rests entirely with those departments. The control of the Treasury does not interfere with the making of contracts or the incurring of expenditure in any shape; all that belongs to the executive departments; but if the Treasury thought that the departments were spending (and they could only know it through the issues) more than they thought ought to be spent in a given period, the Treasury might call for explanation.

The control of the Treasury is limited to those objects which are stated in the Appropriation Act, with regard to the transferring from one particular service to another, the excesses of one vote to the necessities of another, and other minute services which are referred to in the Act of Parliament.

Every estimate is necessarily submitted to the Treasury before it is brought to Parliament. An estimate cannot be submitted to the House until it has received the sanction of the Treasury.

It is absolutely necessary that the whole of those estimates should be before the Treasury in order that the Chancellor of the Exchequer may make his financial arrangements for the year.

The Treasury calculate their ways and means upon the amount of those estimates, and if those departments exceed them of course they disturb the whole of the financial arrangements of the Treasury.

The Treasury is charged with the responsibility of seeing that there are funds at the Bank of England throughout the year for the purpose of meeting the expenditure of the various departments.

It is therefore the duty and the direct interest of the Treasury to keep the sharpest look-out upon all the departments, to see that there is no excess which could disturb those calculations.

If any department were drawing upon the votes of Parliament more rapidly than the Treasury thought was consistent with prudence, it would be the duty of the Treasury to require them to make some arrangements, which would either obtain an extended Parliamentary authority, which would then impose upon the Treasury the duty of providing extended ways and means, or restricting them within the votes already taken.

The same description of control extends over the departments for the receipt of revenue. The Treasury can make their calculations at the commencement of the year upon certain sums being received under various heads of revenue, and it is for them to keep a close daily or weekly watch as to whether those sums are realized, and if not realized, to require some explanation, and to make provision otherwise, if necessary.

The general nature of the duties of the Treasury extending over the whole of the financial area of income and expenditure, places the Treasury in a much better situation than any other department can be of control over the whole.

The Treasury have nothing to do with the receipts of money, but they control the receipts; nor have they power over the application of those moneys before they go into the Exchequer.

The general receivers are accountable, and their duty is to pay the money direct to the Exchequer account.

Therefore, the interest of the Treasury would be on the one hand to see that all those who collect the revenue do their duty and have no means of misdirecting it; and, on the other hand, to see that those who have the expenditure of the money keep within the votes of Parliament, and the anticipated extent of that expenditure. Any variation, either from the amount of the revenue submitted to Parliament in the Budget, or any excess upon the expenditure, ultimately embarrasses the Treasury, and therefore they are most interested in exercising an efficient control over the departments that are charged with the detail duties in both the branches.

The Treasury receive daily a return from the various heads of receipt; and also they have furnished to them daily from the Paymaster the whole of the expenditure, so that they are enabled, from week to week, to check and control the one and the other. They have it daily on both sides—the daily return of the revenue paid in, and the issues made daily; but the account is made up weekly for the Chancellor of the

Exchequer and other members of the Government, both of income and expenditure.

The Treasury have authority to apply the surplus of one vote to make good the deficiency of another. Until the revenue reaches the Exchequer, it is under the sole control of the executive Government. By the Treasury is meant the Finance department, and the responsible officers, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Board—consisting of the First Lord of the Treasury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and three junior lords. But a great deal of the financial business of the Treasury is conducted by the Secretary, who is supposed, in all important matters, to consult the Chancellor of the Exchequer, but the Board is responsible. The Treasury have the power of issuing money if they think fit; and they have power to withdraw some accounts from the Audit Office, and to send them to other auditors. And though they have no power of directing the mode in which the accounts should be examined or audited, they have the power of allowing or disallowing anything that they think fit, so that they are the ultimate auditors of the accounts.

The report of the Commissioners of Public Accounts in 1831, recommended that the Treasury should be able to ascertain, from month to month, how much of each grant of Parliament is exhausted, and how much remains to be expended, &c.

TREASURY WARRANTS.

There are two kinds of Treasury warrants, ordinary and special. The warrants are prepared quarterly; the Treasury sends a warrant to the Exchequer, and the Exchequer issues the amount of that warrant to the Paymaster-General. A duplicate of that warrant goes from the Treasury to the Paymaster-General, to authorize him to pay. There is a special warrant from the Treasury each quarter, for the payment of the dividends, authorizing the Comptroller to place the money to the credit of the chief cashier of the Bank of England, and the sums for life annuities to the National Debt Commissioners. That warrant sets forth the amount of each stock, and the interest upon each. With regard to the payment of salaries and the judicial branch, or the Civil List, the Treasury warrant sets forth the whole of the charges in detail; in some cases they are taken in classes, but they are all set forth in detail in the warrant to the Exchequer, as well as in the warrant to the Paymaster-General. The warrants are in duplicate—one goes to the Exchequer, and the other to the Paymaster-General. The warrants are in most cases printed.

No issue of public money can take place from the Exchequer account for the Consolidated Fund services, except upon a Treasury warrant. The Comptroller has the examination of that warrant, and some of the charges he is obliged to take for granted; but in some cases, by a comparison of the documents with former vouchers, and the Acts of Parliament by which

the charges are authorized, he can exercise a check, so as to see that those payments are correct; in fact, he can do, before payment, what the Audit Board does after payment. As to the supply services, his check amounts simply to this, that you cannot exceed the aggregate of the supplies voted; for although issues are made under distinct votes, he cannot follow up the payments made out of those votes; he must issue to the full extent of any vote, upon the orders of the Treasury, and of those moneys, when once they are gone from him, he knows nothing more.

This Treasury warrant, founded on royal order, might to a great extent be abolished, if the Exchequer were abolished. A covering warrant is a warrant to authorize the expenditure—to cover the expenditure covering all the items contained in a particular list. The Commissioners of Public Accounts in 1831 suggested that a Treasury warrant be given annually, and drawn up in the same form, for the total amount granted for the expenditure of each public department. It was recommended that Treasury warrants be issued to the Exchequer, whereby a credit may be given at the Bank of England to the respective offices or departments for which such issue has been granted.

Much evidence was given in favour of an independent audit of the miscellaneous and civil services, and of all Treasury accounts, especially if the Exchequer were abolished; and also in favour of an independent Parliamentary check or control upon the power of the Treasury to deal with the public money. A disapproval was also expressed of any large expenditure by the Treasury, whether in commutation or otherwise, without the sanction of Parliament or the cognisance of the Exchequer. The Treasury should have a daily knowledge of the exact state of the cash account under each vote; and all the departments should be subordinate to the supreme authority of the Treasury, whilst the accounts of the Treasury should all be checked by the Board of Audit. The object of the Legislature is to concentrate and accumulate control in the Treasury, as the responsibility ultimately rests with the controlling department of the Government.

EXCHEQUER.

The Exchequer is at least coeval with the Norman conquest, and, from its earliest institution, has been looked upon as a check on the Lord High Treasurer, and a protection for the king as well as the subject, in the custody, payment, and issue of the public money. The Treasury and the Exchequer, in olden times, formed one office, and the Lord High Treasurer was the chief officer of it. After the Restoration, the separation took place; and from that time certain subordinate officers of the old Exchequer continued to exercise a control over the accounts of their former chiefs. Originally, the business was transacted in the office of the Exchequer—what are now termed the Treasury Chambers; about the time of the Restoration,

the offices were removed into the Chambers in Whitehall. After the change, the Exchequer became the bank of the Government, and it became a department supposed to exercise a control over the Treasury issues. Lord Monteagle, of Brandon, was appointed Comptroller of the Exchequer in the year 1839. The Act of 1834 regulated the Exchequer, and by it all the powers and authorities vested in the Auditors of the Exchequer, or Clerks of the Pells, either by law or usage, were transferred to the Comptroller.

The Exchequer is the great conservator of the revenues of the nation. It does not exercise any authority over the administrative departments of receipt, nor over the departments of payment any further than to guard against the illegal application of any portion of the public income. The constitutional functions of its officers, who hold their situations for life, are to provide for the safe keeping and proper appropriation of the public money. For this purpose it is charged with the receipt of the revenues, which are vested in its name, and deposited in its care, until issued under the authority of Parliament for the service of the State; and it is armed with a power of denying its sanction to any demands upon it, from whatever minister or department they may be made, unless those demands are found in accordance with the determinations of the Legislature. The business of the Exchequer, in its simplest form, is the receipt of the public money, and the issue of the same under orders from the proper authority; the second branch, that of issue, further involves the most important duty of control, while both require, in a matter of such national and historical importance, the duty of record.

The Exchequer receives the duties of Customs, of Inland Revenue, which comprehend the branches of Excise, Stamps, and Taxes, and now the Property Tax in addition; the Post-office revenue; the hereditary revenues; the land revenues, distinguishing the lesser branches; the Queen's revenue under the first designation, and, further, a vast number of payments coming under the head of repayments of advances of imprest moneys, and small payments of different descriptions which, under different authorities, are paid in, being or including a variety of payments paid chiefly through the Paymaster-General, except the great branches of revenue, as well as some other heads of revenue, which are paid direct by their receivers-general.

The Comptroller has a direct control as regards all moneys when once paid into the Exchequer, but he has no check whatever with respect to payments out of revenue before it is paid into the Exchequer; he has, in fact, no cognisance of such payments.

Evidence was given to the effect that it would be a better system if the Paymaster should be merged into the Exchequer, or the Exchequer become the Paymaster. They are two offices charged with a similar duty; one having merely to supply the other with the funds, and the other having to appropriate them in detail. The Exchequer might very safely be swept

away, and the money issued as it is now, not under distinct heads, but issued by the Treasury directly, instead of passing through the Exchequer. Sir Charles Trevelyan also recommended the abolition of the office. A great fault now in the Exchequer's accounts is, that the public accounts of expenditure are founded upon Exchequer credit, and not upon actual payment. It is a very vicious principle that the Treasury account should be founded upon assumption, and not upon facts. Besides, the specific credit system necessitates the keeping of two distinct sets of account at the pay-office—one to show how the vote is going in credit, and the other to show how it is going in expenditure. Lord Monteagle, however, defended the Exchequer system of accounts.

In the opinion of Mr. Anderson, the business of the Exchequer is very slight. It may receive about six money-letters a day, and any competent junior clerk ought to be able to do everything that is required with those six letters, that is, making out the credit, and making a proper record of them. The only business the Exchequer has to transact, is the keeping of Exchequer accounts, with the exception of the preparation of Exchequer bills, which may occupy them for a week twice in the year. The Exchequer has the custody of weights and measures, but it is a small business, which might be done by the Mint. The entire establishment now comprises the Comptroller-General, who has 2,000*l.* a year; the Assistant-Comptroller, 1,000*l.* a year. The Chief Clerk has 900*l.*, the Accountant 550*l.*, and seven clerks receive salaries which vary from 100*l.* to 550*l.*; and there are an office-keeper, messengers, watchmen, and so forth, making a total cost of 7,000*l.* a year on salaries alone. Lord Monteagle, on the other hand, contradicted the foregoing statement, and showed that the establishment is by no means too large.

EXCHEQUER BILLS.

The Treasury has the power, by Act of Parliament, to issue Ways and Means Bills, or, in other words, Exchequer Bills, to the aid of the ways and means of the year, by issuing them in any one quarter, payable out of the revenues of the following quarter. Independent of these bills of supply, issues are made in Exchequer Bills to the Paymaster-General for the ordinary service, to be sold in the market to meet the public demand. The bills are signed either by the Comptroller or by the Assistant-Comptroller, and every means have been suggested to prevent forgery. Sometimes the bills are issued to the Paymaster-General, and sometimes to the Bank; and the Bank either carries the amount of money for which it has contracted with the Government to the Paymaster's account or to the Exchequer account. Then the credit is issued from the Exchequer account for the public accountant. About 1,500 bills are prepared in one day, and they are signed in even quantities. There are constitutional reasons against the Treasury having the issue of Exchequer

Bills. The constitution of England is founded on a jealousy of the executive Government, and therefore checks are required in dealing with the action of the Government, which a commercial company like the Bank of England may not in any respect require.

From the 1st January, 1842, to 15th June, 1847, there were signed by the Comptroller-General, and by the Assistant-Comptroller, 186,707 Exchequer Bills for the amount of 197,983,423*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*

From the 1st January, 1845, to the 15th June, 1847, there were examined and controlled, by the Comptroller-General and Assistant-Comptroller, 288 royal orders of the amount of 92,865,730*l.* 13*s.* 7*d.*, and 900 Treasury warrants of the value of 283,681,258*l.* 12*s.* 0*d.*

From 1st January, 1845, to 10th June, 1847, there were issued and supplied to the Paymaster, 90,109 Bills of the amount of 54,604,300*l.*, issued respectively on the 18th March.

The preparation of Exchequer Bills costs the public for paper-making, 400*l.*; superintendence of ditto, 30*l.*; engraving and printing, 180*l.*; superintendent, 30*l.*; and counterfoils, 10*l.* Total, 650*l.*

During 1855, there were signed 1,455 credits, 1,228 acquittances, 427 Irish transfers, 3,842 Irish acquittances, 32,444 Exchequer bills of 31,825,117*l.*; and controlled, 214 royal orders of 91,811,111*l.*, and 369 Treasury warrants of 178,981,985*l.* In 1854, there were signed 22,654 Exchequer bonds of 6,009,400*l.*

PREMIUM ON EXCHEQUER BILLS.

A question was shown to exist as to the effect of the premium on Exchequer Bills, with regard to the Appropriation Act; the Comptroller holding that these premiums being so much in excess of the vote, should be repaid to the Exchequer account; and the Treasury being of opinion that the matter of these premiums rested between them and Parliament.

PAY OFFICE.

Lord Monteagle gave evidence of having known moneys to remain for months and years in the hands of the Paymaster, employed, probably, for purposes other than were intended. Sometimes payments are made for services not voted by Parliament, or sanctioned by statute. It was stated to be high misdemeanour of the Treasury or Paymaster-General, if, after having obtained money from the Exchequer for any one specific purpose, they apply it to another. As a general principle, the Paymaster cannot, or ought not, save out of the Civil Contingencies, or the Commissariat Chest account, to pay anything on the miscellaneous votes, unless from the money specially issued for the purpose.

The following are the steps required by law to be taken to justify any issue of public money, as detailed in a memorandum by Lord Monteagle on the Exchequer in 1854:—

- “ 1. To provide legally for any public service, there must, first, be a

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vote taken in Committee of Supply, reported and agreed to by the House of Commons, or an Act passed to the same effect.

“ 2. Ways and means must also be provided, and an Act of Parliament passed, authorising the issuing of such ways and means for any services voted by the House of Commons. Such is the constitutional jealousy of Parliament, that it is not the usage of the House of Commons to grant ways and means exceeding the amount of supplies actually voted.

“ 3. There must be a Royal Sign Manual Warrant, countersigned by the Treasury, addressed to the Comptroller of the Exchequer, authorising an issue, chargeable on Ways and Means provided by the Legislature for specific services, voted by resolution of the House of Commons, or sanctioned by Act. Such resolution or enactment must be recited at length in the Royal Order, in order to secure the exclusive application of the sums to be issued to their legal uses and no other.

“ 4. The next step taken is the issue of a Treasury Warrant, duly signed, and addressed in like manner to the Comptroller of the Exchequer, authorising the issue of such sums as are included within the recited resolution or Act of Parliament, provided for in the Ways and Means Acts, and comprehended in the Royal Sign Manual Warrant or Order. The issues are thus directed to be made in strict accordance with these several authorities, and for the purposes specified in the Act recited, or in the resolution of the House of Commons. If more issues than one should be directed by separate warrants, to be made on account of the same vote, each successive Royal Order and Treasury Warrant must specify the original sum voted, the sum already issued, and the balance remaining applicable; thus guarding against any excess of issue beyond the parliamentary appropriation.

“ 5. On the completion of these authorities, an issuing letter, signed by a secretary of the Treasury, founded upon and referring to the several instruments already described, is addressed to the Comptroller of the Exchequer; this document carries into effect the preceding orders, with this one distinction, that, in general, the issuing letters are for lesser amounts than are authorised by the former orders and warrants, and are forwarded to the Exchequer from time to time according to the exigencies of the public service. Each issuing letter recites the special purposes for which the particular sum is required. The issuing letter also points out and directs the express ways and means to which such issues shall severally be charged in the books of this department.

“ 6. On receipt of these documents, the Comptroller-General is bound to ascertain whether the parliamentary vote has been agreed to, or an Act passed; whether the Ways and Means Bill, applicable to such vote, has also become law; whether the Sign Manual, reciting the special purposes of the vote, and not exceeding its amount, the Treasury Warrant, and the Issuing Letter, are all conformable to law in substance and form. The Comptroller-General, on being fully satisfied that each of these five

indispensable conditions has been duly complied with, is bound to direct the Bank of England, by his Exchequer warrant, to grant a credit from the Exchequer account to the department pointed out by the Treasury, for the exact sum required, and for the exact sum required, and for the specified service authorised."

PAYMASTER-GENERAL.

The Paymaster-General does not attend to the details of the duties of the pay-office, but all the officers in that department act under powers derived from him. The accounts stand in his name, and he is responsible to the Treasury. He has other duties to perform, as the President of the Board of Trade. When he comes into office he grants deputations to various officers to act for him, but if there is any departure from the regulations, or any question arises which calls for further authority, the Paymaster-General is the first person to consult; and if any reference is necessary to the Treasury, it is the Paymaster-General who makes it. He signs but few documents. The only voucher that he actually signs in the conduct of the business is a receipt for the exchange of Exchequer Bills; the new Bills are issued on his signature. It would be an improvement if the duties of Paymaster-General were vested in some permanent official, such as the Assistant Paymaster-General.

The offices of Paymaster-General of the Forces, Treasurer of the Navy, Treasurer of the Ordnance, and Paymaster of Civil Services, were consolidated under the Act 5 & 6 Will. IV., and subsequent enactments; but the consolidation had the bad effect of placing an unduly large unappropriated balance in the hands and at the control of the Paymaster-General. On the part of the Pay-office, it was admitted that instances have occurred of issues of public money in anticipation of votes of Parliament; but it is a practice of the Paymaster not to issue money for any service that has not a credit at the Exchequer.

BALANCES.

In 1780, a Commission was appointed to inquire into the undue accumulation of balances, and they made strong objections to the system which then existed in the Pay-office. Mr. Anderson stated that a great waste of public money would take place if the Paymaster-General were to be provided with unlimited balances in order to carry out a strict appropriation. The balances of Exchequer credits in the hands of the Paymaster-General at the close of the following financial years were as follows:—At the close of 1850, 28 heads of account, 747,034*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; 1851, 29 heads, 985,987*l.* 7*s.*; 1852, 40 heads, 920,052*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.*; 1853, 23 heads, 805,838*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.*; 1854, 53 heads, 242,477*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*; 1855, 21 heads, 368,483*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*; of 1856, 6 heads of account, 1,483,049*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* The balances vary very much; during a war, in a time of heavy pressure, it is necessary to keep much larger balances than during a time of peace. The balance standing to the credit on the account

of Her Majesty's Exchequer at the Bank of England, on the 31st March, 1856, was 5,802,623*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*, including Exchequer account and the Exchequer credit account. This does not include the Bank of Ireland account. The sum at this Bank was 1,283,574*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.*, making together 7,086,198*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.*

AUDIT.

A good audit is the only practical check upon the expenditure. The Auditor has power to see that no expenditure which should appear in the year is postponed, and that the expenditure every year takes place under the proper heads of accounts. It would be expedient that the Audit should annually report to Parliament.

The Audit-office consists of inspectors, senior examiners, junior examiners, and assistants. The following is the course that an account takes at the Audit-office:—An account comes to the office either by the direction of an Act of Parliament, or from the circumstance that the Treasury have made an issue upon account; or that payments have been made by a head accountant to others upon conditions which render them liable to account. The Auditors then charge the accountant in the books of the Audit-office with the sums so issued to him, and then a requisition letter is sent to the accountant to render an account of that sum so issued to him; and the account, when it comes back into the office, is placed in the hands of an inspector, and is inspected, in order to see that the balances are in safe custody, and to see whether there is any unusual or large expenditure which should attract attention immediately; the account is then put into the hands of the examiner, who goes through the examination of that account with the authorities and vouchers, and the inspector frames queries where it may be necessary. When those queries have been answered, he lays the queries and the answers before a committee of the Board, which always consists of two, to decide upon those answers, and then the account is made up into what is called *the state* of the account, which is first audited by a committee of the Board, consisting of two, and the account is then transmitted to the Treasury, for their final warrant. It is returned to the Audit with the warrant of the Treasury, and it is then signed for declaration, or for passing, as the case may be, and it is subsequently declared before the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

FINANCE ACCOUNTS.

It is of great importance that the finance accounts of the year be presented early in the session. Owing to some discrepancies in the heads of accounts, comparison with former finance accounts became impossible. The delay, however, of the presentation of last year's accounts, was accidental. The great object of a financial system is the security of the public money, the utmost simplicity of management, and the greatest economy in the employment of the public balances. These objects will be best attained by placing the finances under one undivided control and responsibility,

consolidating all the public money into one fund, and issuing them from that fund under one direct authority, the direct authority of the controlling department. The sources of revenue are the great branches of revenue which are controlled by the revenue departments: these take in all the ordinary revenues, and there are various miscellaneous receipts which come in principally through the departments of expenditure, such as old stores, and a variety of other items, which are detailed in the finance accounts. Another item of receipt arises from the repayments of advances, which are the reimbursements of loans which have been made out of the Consolidated Fund for a variety of public services. In addition to those, there are special receipts, such as loans, Exchequer bills, and Exchequer bonds. There are also temporary advances which are required to make up the deficiency of the Consolidated Fund, or sometimes to make up the deficiency of the revenue to meet the supply services. These are the great branches of the public revenue, and other receipts, making up the aggregate account of the Exchequer.

These are applicable to the public service in the following manner:—As regards the Consolidated Fund services, the Acts under which the grants are made create a charge at once upon the Consolidated Fund. No further authority, therefore, is required than the Act itself for the issue of those moneys from the Consolidated Fund. The supply services are also issued from the Consolidated Fund, but through the medium of Ways and Means Acts.

The supply services are services voted by Parliament in each session. Those votes are applicable to the public services before they have received the assent of Parliament in an Appropriation Act, simply upon the vote of the House of Commons. They are immediately available for the public service, provided a Ways and Means Act has passed both Houses and received the Royal Assent; an Appropriation Act afterwards confirms those votes, but the issue is made notwithstanding the Appropriation Act has not been passed.

According to the practice from time immemorial, a vote of the House of Commons has been considered sufficient authority for the issue of money for the supply services, provided a Ways and Means Bill has passed the Legislature covering a sufficient sum to cover those votes of supply.

After the votes of supply are taken, a Ways and Means Bill is passed in general terms for a given sum of money, the Legislature generally not exercising any direct control over any particular vote. The votes in supply are specially applicable to the services for which they are given by the House of Commons, but the grants of ways and means are general, and they over-ride the whole of the supplies.

In the Appropriation Act the whole of the votes of supply are set out in detail, and the ways and means made applicable to these votes, and by that means the whole of the votes of supply obtain legislative force as well as the ways and means. In the Appropriation Act the ways and means

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granted equal the supplies voted, with the addition of the interest of the Exchequer bills, which is not a voted service, but is charged on the supplies. The House of Commons, or rather the Speaker, in fixing the amount of balance of ways and means which shall be granted in the Appropriation Act, allows, in addition to the amount of the votes, the interest of the Exchequer bills.

The moneys paid into the Consolidated Fund are applicable, in the first instance, to the payment of all those charges which by law are payable directly out of the Consolidated Fund—the interest of the debt (which is a prior charge), the civil list, the annuities, the pensions, and certain salaries, the courts of justice, and a variety of miscellaneous charges; they are next available for the services charged on supplies, through Ways and Means Acts, for the army, navy, and ordnance, and the various supply services. There are other services, such as advances by way of loan, and any deficiency bills, or any ways and means bills, issued to make good the deficiency of the Consolidated Fund, which are also payable out of any moneys that are paid into the Exchequer to the account of the Consolidated Fund.

On making up the account of income and charge upon the Consolidated Fund at the close of each quarter, the whole balance which remains is set aside, provided it does not exceed the amount of the charge for the payment of the debt; so that we generally commence the quarter without a sixpence in the Exchequer.

The accounts are made up every quarter; they are made up for official purposes more frequently than that, of course; but an account is prepared for Parliament at the end of each quarter, embracing the preceding twelve months; so that it is a quarterly account and an annual account at the same time.

By the term Consolidated Fund is meant the great account into which all the public means, and all the revenues of the State pass, and it would be represented by the capital account of a merchant.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

At the close of each day a statement is made of public accounts with the Bank. The first report of the Commissioners of Public Accounts recommended that all revenues should be paid directly to the Bank; and by Treasury minute dated 2nd March, 1855, it is prescribed that the transfer should be made from the accounts of the Receiver-General to the Exchequer at the Bank daily. On the last day of each quarter the Receiver-General must complete these payments by one o'clock. The fractional parts of 1,000*l.* are not to be paid in. As soon as transfers are made, then a duplicate notice is sent to the Treasury and Exchequer. The Comptroller of the Exchequer is also requested to furnish daily returns of specifications and credits. The revenue year is now assimilated to the financial year from the 31st March, 1855.

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CIVIL CONTINGENCIES.

The civil contingencies have been diminished from an average of 230,000*l.* a year to 100,000*l.* a year. The civil contingencies are applied to certain services which are annually submitted to Parliament in the account upon which the annual vote is taken. They are also used, though not finally applied, for services upon which an advance may be required, such as the purchase of a picture, afterwards to be submitted to Parliament, and a vote taken. The vote is entirely at the disposal of the Treasury, upon requisition for various services.

CIVIL LIST.

The amount of the civil list is 385,000*l.* a year, but in the year ending the 31st March, 1856, was 396,457*l.* 10*s.* It includes the civil list pensions granted at the rate of 1,200*l.* a year, her Majesty having power of granting pensions to that amount.

CREATION OF DEBT.

It was given in evidence, by Lord Monteagle, on this subject, that the British Parliament and the British public would not tolerate for a moment the power of creating debt, on the part of the executive Government, without some control. If Parliament were to give to the Treasury an uncontrolled power of making Exchequer Bills payable on demand, or payable at the end of a year, assignable from hand to hand, it would not be a constitutional principle, and it would be open to great complaints. There would be great danger in allowing the Chancellor of the Exchequer to sell savings' bank stock for the purpose of buying Exchequer Bills, and then converting those Exchequer Bills again into stock.

No. LIX.—SUPPLY.

Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 5th May, 1856, for Account of the sums voted in Supply during the years 1854 and 1855, under the several heads of Army, Navy, Ordnance, and Miscellaneous Services; and Abstract of grants for Miscellaneous Services for 1854 and 1855, in the same form as the Abstract now printed with the Annual estimates, &c. (113 L.)

THE sums voted in supply during the years 1854 and 1855 were as follows:—For army services in 1854, 8,810,059*l.*; in 1855, 18,789,532*l.* For navy in 1854, 12,874,505*l.*; in 1855, 21,394,216*l.* For ordnance in 1854, 4,583,701*l.*; and in 1855, 10,047,103*l.* Total, army, navy, and ordnance, 1854, 26,268,265*l.*; in 1855, 50,230,851*l.* There was a credit for the war with Russia, 3,000,000*l.* in 1854, and 3,000,000*l.* in 1855. For the civil services in 1854, 6,464,122*l.*; and in 1855, 6,690,462*l.* For revenue departments in 1854, 4,052,803*l.*; and in 1855, 4,385,951*l.* Total supply services voted, 1854, 39,785,190*l.*; and in 1855, 64,307,264*l.*

LX.—PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 27th May, 1856, for An Account of the Public Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom in the years ending 31st March 1855 and 1856, in continuation of Parliamentary Paper No. 453 of session 1855. (Mr. W. Williams.) (382.)

INCOME.—YEAR ENDING 31st MARCH, 1856.

		£	STAMPS:	£
CUSTOMS AND EXCISE:—			Deeds and other Instruments -	1,918,737
			Probates and Legacies -	2,850,873
Spirits	{ Foreign -	1,174,922	Insurance { Marine -	324,383
	{ Rum -	1,297,727	{ Fire -	1,280,441
	{ British -	7,877,830	Bills of Exchange, Bankers' Notes -	450,752
Malt -	-	6,676,349	Newspapers and Advertisements -	255,542
Hops -	-	129,116	Receipts -	257,631
Wine -	-	1,856,120	Other Stamp Duties -	425,251
Sugar and Molasses -	-	5,227,066		
Tea -	-	5,802,086		7,036,610
Coffee -	-	587,637		(In 1855, 7,159,540)
Tobacco and Snuff -	-	5,006,699		
		35,635,552	ASSESSED AND LAND TAXES:—	
		(In 1855, 33,963,100)	Land Taxes -	1,157,525
Butter -	-	113,206	Houses -	728,689
Cheese -	-	48,808	Servants -	185,826
Currants and Raisins -	-	243,726	Horses -	340,898
Corn -	-	353,066	Carriages -	283,853
Silks -	-	284,405	Dogs -	208,912
Paper -	-	1,047,430	Additional 10 per cent.	11,912
Soap -	-	—	Other Assessed Taxes	218,462
Candles and Tallow -	-	57,177		3,136,077
Glass -	-	7,218		(In 1855, 3,225,121)
Timber -	-	448,756	Property & Income Tax	15,159,458
Excise Licenses -	-	1,399,673		(In 1855, 10,922,267)
Post-horse Duties -	-	69,636	Post Office -	2,767,201
Hackney Carriages -	-	133,016		(In 1855, 2,635,537)
Stage Carriages -	-	323,791	Crown Lands -	421,715
Railways -	-	680,476		(In 1855, 383,758)
Miscellaneous of Customs and Excise -	-	5,210,384	Other Ordinary Revenue	1,158,148
				(In 1855, 731,578)
Total Customs and Excise -	-	40,845,936	Total Income -	70,552,145
		(In 1855, 39,033,970)		(In 1855, 64,091,571)
			Excess of Expenditure	22,597,165
				(In 1855, 6,145,246)
				93,149,310
				(In 1855, 70,236,817)

EXPENDITURE.—YEAR ENDING MARCH 31st, 1855.

		£	Payments out of Revenue of Crown Lands -	£
Revenue: Charges of Collection -	-	2,863,353		107,042
		(In 1855, 2,724,904)	Post-Office Charges of Collection and other Payments -	1,578,299
Public Debt -	-	28,112,825	Quarantine and Warehousing Establishments	137,307
		(In 1855, 27,864,533)	Miscellaneous -	2,470,230
Civil Government -	-	1,695,052		
		(In 1855, 1,738,109)	Total Expenditure -	93,149,310
Justice -	-	3,192,420		(In 1855, 70,236,817)
		(In 1855, 2,427,655)	Terminable Annuities at end of each year, was	3,996,065
Diplomatic -	-	366,443	In corresponding Perpetuities, as estimated by Mr. Finlaison -	898,313
		(In 1855, 325,690)		
Forces -	-	47,461,188		
		(In 1855, 28,321,707)		
Credit for Russian War Bounties for Fisheries	-	4,200,000		
Public Works -	-	14,575		
		950,576		

No. XXVI.—BRITISH GUIANA.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 9th June, 1856, for Papers or Extracts of Correspondence between the Governor of British Guiana and the Secretary of State for the Colonies, on the subject of the recent Disturbances in that Colony. (Mr. Horsfall.) (432.)

SOME serious riots and disturbances, accompanied by the destruction and plunder of immense quantities of provisions, spirits, and other property, and much personal violence, took place in the city of Georgetown towards the end of February, 1856. The main promoter and instigator of the same was a man named John S. Orr. He arrived in the colony from Great Britain in the month of December 1855. Immediately after he commenced walking about the town and its vicinity, carrying a flag, wearing a badge, and blowing a horn occasionally at the corners of the streets, followed by small groups of the rabble of the place, and invited all persons to attend at the harangues to be delivered on Sundays, to hear him denounce the abuses of popery, and the profligacy of popes, bishops, priests, and nuns. The Portuguese population, who with very few exceptions are Catholics, became very angry at the abuse thus publicly thrown upon their religion and its heads, and apprehensions were entertained that they would commit an assault upon him, and perhaps take away his life. On one or two Sundays he delivered harangues or sermons near the public market to large crowds of people, blending together skilfully and amusingly political and religious subjects in a manner calculated to arouse the passions of the black and coloured population against the Portuguese immigrants. A great excitement was caused by such proceedings, and Orr was committed for trial. Though Orr originated the disturbance, a deeper cause of disaffection existed, and that is a strife of races. The troops were sent for; summary proceedings were taken against the rioters, and the riots were quelled. In consequence of these riots, claims for compensation for property destroyed were made for more than 50,000*l*.

No. XXVII.—EMIGRATION COMMISSION.

Sixteenth General Report of the Emigration Commissioners. (1856.)

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

DURING the forty-one years from the close of the Peninsular war to the end of 1855, no less than 4,293,765 persons have left the United Kingdom; but of these, 2,621,609, or over 61 per cent., have emigrated during the last nine years. For many years after the close of the war, the emigration was inconsiderable. Thus, during the fifteen years between 1816 and 1830 inclusive, the greatest number who emigrated in any one year was 56,907, and the average of the whole period was only 24,582. In the next fifteen years ending with 1845, the average rose to 78,099; the largest emigration having been 128,344 in 1842. In 1846 the emigration reached 129,851. But in 1847, in consequence of the Irish famine,

began the movement to which the name of "Exodus" has been applied, which in the eight years ending with 1854 carried away from the United Kingdom no less than 2,444,802 souls, or an average of 305,600 souls a year.

The largest emigration which has taken place was in 1852, when it amounted to 368,764 souls; in 1853 the number fell to 329,937; in 1854 to 323,429; and in 1855 it was only 176,807. Thus, in 1855 it was less than half what it had been in 1852, and less than three-fifths the average of the eight years ending with 1854. The causes of this great decrease are a matter of interesting consideration.

Upon referring to the records of past years, we find that the Irish emigration from the United Kingdom was calculated at—1851, 254,537; 1852, 224,997; 1853, 192,609; 1854, 150,209; while in 1855 it amounted to only 78,854. Thus, while the decrease in the general emigration in 1854 amounted to 12·29 per cent., and in 1855 to 52·05, the decrease in the Irish emigration amounted in the same years to 33·23 and 64·95 per cent. It is to this portion of the emigration, therefore, that we must look in the first instance for the causes of decrease; and this may be ascribed to the improved condition of the labouring population in Ireland. The amounts remitted home by settlers in North America since 1848 was upwards of 8,393,000*l.*; and during each of the last three years they have been—1853, 1,439,000*l.*; 1854, 1,730,000*l.*; 1855, 873,000*l.* These amounts far exceed the whole expense of the Irish emigration to the American continent in each of these years. In 1855, that expense was 279,000*l.* Upon a comparison of the emigration to British North America and to the United States, it will be noted that in the earlier years the emigration proceeded rather to British North America than to the United States; so that between 1816 and 1834, of 669,725 persons who emigrated to the American continent, 402,301 went to British North America, and only 267,424 to the United States. Since 1835 the preponderance has been continually the other way; and of 3,053,294 persons who have emigrated in the twenty-one years between 1st January 1835 and 31st December 1855, 2,323,312 have gone to the United States, and only 729,982 to British North America.

The emigration to the British Colonies has, in fact, been for many years almost stationary. Thus, excluding the exceptional year 1847, the annual emigration to those colonies between 1840 and the close of 1854 was on an average 36,101 persons; while the average of the nine years between 1st January 1830 and 31st December 1839, also excluding the exceptional year 1838, was 35,132.

The larger amount of emigration to the United States, as compared with British America, is accounted for by the greater power of the States to absorb labourers, and also by the fact that Canadian emigrants take the route through the State of New York. During the year 1855, the mortality on board the ships which carried emigrants to the United States

was small. In 104 ships which carried 42,354 emigrants to New York, the deaths were 100, or 0·23 per cent.; while in 25 ships which carried 9,674 emigrants to Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, the deaths were only 10, or 0·10 per cent. Two ships were wrecked during 1853, and 858 lives lost out of 174,957 embarked. The emigration to Australia diminished from 83,237 in 1854 to 52,309 in 1855. During the year 1855, 88 emigrant ships were sent by the Board to the Australian colonies, carrying 28,016 souls.

In New South Wales, 5,480 lots of land were sold of 83,396 acres, at the average price per acre of 3*l.* 5*s.* 2½*d.*, or a total amount of purchase-money of 272,079*l.* There were received, also, 52,912*l.* for rent licenses and quit rent.

In Victoria, there were alienated 404,472 acres of land for an amount of 1,378,858*l.*, at the average price per acre of 4*l.* 0*s.* 4*d.* The value of gold exported for the first eight months of 1855, at 80*s.* an ounce, was 6,736,956*l.* As many as 10,000 Chinese emigrants were introduced, but complaints were made of their character and kind of occupation.

In South Australia, 213,925 acres realized 377,303*l.* The number of acres of land occupied is now 663,423, of which 129,692 were under cultivation.

In Western Australia, there were 2,232 acres of land sold at an average price per acre of 1*l.* 0*s.* 10½*d.* The receipts from leases and licenses were 2,984*l.*, making a total of 6,433*l.*

In Van Diemen's Land there were sold 32,433 acres, realizing 34,157*l.* In 1815, the number of the aborigines was 5,000. These were reduced in 1835 to 111, in 1845 to 45, and in 1855 to 16.

To New Zealand there was no emigration under the Board. The whole number of emigrants who sailed for New Zealand in 1855 was 2,301.

The number of emigrants who sailed for Canada in 1855 was 20,207, to which are to be added 36 births on the passage, making a total of 20,243. In 1855 the number was 52,365. The deaths on the passage were 97, and in quarantine 36—in all 133.

The emigration to New Brunswick in 1855 was 1,405, against 2,215 in 1854.

In Natal and the Cape of Good Hope, some alterations have been made in the regulations for the disposal of land.

Into the Mauritius there were introduced in 1854, 11,755 adults, and 1,465 children. The number of coolies who left Mauritius for India during 1854 and the first three quarters of 1855 was, 6,600 adults and 651 children. The labour of those emigrants, who number near 130,000, who have appropriated the business of agriculture, now abandoned by the Creoles, has raised the sugar crop of the island in 13 years from 70 to more than 200,000,000 of pounds, and the quantity is still on the increase.

A number of emigrants have reached British Guiana and Jamaica, from Madeira.

During the year 1855, 22,821 emigrants returned to the United Kingdom, viz.: 18,402 from America, and 4,419 from Australia. The proportion of cabin to steerage passengers was from Australia 16½ per cent., from America only 1½ per cent., showing the greater wealth and higher position of those who returned from the former.

EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE FORTY-ONE
YEARS FROM 1815 TO 1855 INCLUSIVE.

Years.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Australian Colonies and New Zealand.	All other Places.	Total.
1815	680	1,209	*	192	2,081
1816	8,370	9,022	*	118	12,510
1817	9,797	10,280	*	557	20,634
1818	15,136	12,429	*	222	27,787
1819	23,534	10,674	*	579	34,787
1820	17,921	6,745	*	1,063	25,729
1821	12,955	4,958	*	384	18,297
1822	16,013	4,137	*	279	20,429
1823	11,355	5,032	*	163	16,550
1824	8,774	5,152	*	99	14,025
1825	8,741	5,551	485	114	14,891
1826	12,818	7,063	903	116	20,900
1827	12,648	14,526	715	114	28,003
1828	12,084	12,817	1,056	135	26,092
1829	13,307	15,878	2,016	197	31,198
1830	30,574	24,887	1,242	204	56,907
1831	58,067	23,418	1,561	114	83,160
1832	66,339	32,872	3,733	196	103,140
1833	28,808	29,109	4,093	517	62,527
1834	40,060	33,074	2,800	288	76,222
1835	15,573	26,720	1,860	325	44,478
1836	34,226	37,774	3,124	293	75,417
1837	29,884	36,770	5,054	326	72,034
1838	4,577	14,332	14,021	292	33,222
1839	12,658	33,536	15,786	227	62,207
1840	32,293	40,642	15,850	1,958	90,743
1841	38,164	45,017	32,625	2,786	118,592
1842	54,123	63,852	8,534	1,835	128,344
1843	23,518	28,335	3,478	1,881	57,212
1844	22,924	43,660	2,229	1,873	70,686
1845	31,803	58,538	830	2,330	93,501
1846	43,439	82,239	2,347	1,826	129,851
1847	109,680	142,154	4,949	1,487	258,270
1848	31,065	188,233	23,904	4,887	248,089
1849	41,367	219,450	32,191	6,490	299,498
1850	32,961	223,078	16,037	8,773	280,849
1851	42,605	267,357	21,532	4,472	335,966
1852	32,873	244,261	87,881	3,749	368,764
1853	34,522	230,885	61,401	3,129	329,937
1854	43,761	193,065	83,237	3,366	323,429
1855	17,966	108,414	52,309	3,118	176,807
Total .	1,132,963	2,591,945	507,783	61,074	4,293,765

Average annual emigration from the United Kingdom - - }	From 1815 to 1854 - - - 104,726 For the 9 years ending 1855 - 291,289
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* The Customs returns do not record any emigration to Australia during these ten years, but it appears from other sources that there went out in 1821, 320; in 1822, 875; in 1823, 543; in 1824, 780; and in 1825, 458 persons. These numbers have not been included in the totals of this table.

Analytical Return of the Emigration from the United Kingdom in 1855.

Destination.	Male.	Female.	Not distin- guished.	Total.
United States	53,255	45,879	4,280	103,414
Central and South America	267	93	61	421
North American Colonies :—				
Canada	8,125	7,355	473	15,953
New Brunswick	706	602	176	1,484
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton	166	118	60	344
Newfoundland	55	34	5	94
Prince Edward's Island	47	39	5	91
West Indies :—				
Jamaica	17	4	94	115
British Guiana	61	26	38	125
Trinidad	3	3	24	30
Other Islands	81	8	225	314
East Indies	71	27	1,187	1,285
Hong Kong			57	57
Mauritius			38	38
Western Africa, St. Helena, Madeira, Malta, &c.			225	225
Cape of Good Hope	42	31	414	487
Falkland Islands	8	13		21
Australian Colonies :—				
New South Wales	6,486	6,863	701	14,050
Victoria	10,882	9,154	1,036	21,072
South Australia	4,371	6,667	295	11,333
Western Australia	27	34	35	96
Van Diemen's Land	1,789	1,343	325	3,457
New Zealand	1,253	962	86	2,301
Total	87,712	79,255	9,840	176,807

NEW SOUTH WALES.

Table illustrating the progress of the Colony from 1844 to 1854 inclusive.

	Popu- lation.	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.	Value of Im- ports, the produce or manufac- ture of Great Britain. *	Land in Culti- vation.	Value of Exports of Wool.	Value of Exports of Tallow.	Produce of Land Sales.	Receipts from Leases, Licenses, and Quit Rents.
		£	£	£	Acres.	£	£	£	£
1844	173,377	871,268	780,198	542,970	128,406	471,300	69,604	8,031	19,423
1845	181,556	1,092,389	985,561	612,912	138,237	612,705	90,479	14,104	29,414
1846	196,704	1,056,338	1,314,951	878,660	151,034	668,544	25,058	10,998	29,782
1847	205,009	1,201,535	1,544,327	933,364	128,598	706,313	92,384	9,182	41,534
1848	220,474	1,155,009	1,182,874	790,720	123,499	683,623	102,611	8,865	32,345
1849	246,299	1,135,944	1,313,589	900,759	135,806	663,965	149,671	22,740	37,103
1850	265,503	1,357,784	1,333,413	961,364	144,647	788,051	167,858	35,251	41,437
1851	197,168	1,796,912	1,563,931	1,109,480	152,057	828,302	114,168	67,912	45,327
1852	208,254	4,604,034	1,900,436	1,235,664	130,643	676,815	146,811	56,875	40,971
1853	231,088	4,523,346	6,342,397	3,993,670	138,052	999,896	134,708	251,667	44,172
1854	251,315	4,050,126	5,981,063	3,699,623	130,944	1,181,956	164,256	272,078	52,912

N.B. The returns of the population include the late district of Port Phillip, now the colony of Victoria, up to the year 1850 inclusive.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

Return of Live Stock in the Colony from 1842 to 1854 inclusive.

Year.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Pigs.	Sheep.
1843 - -	55,739	850,160	54,607	3,452,539
1844 - -	64,093	971,559	52,196	3,743,732
1845 - -	73,014	1,116,420	56,022	4,409,504
1846 - -	76,726	1,140,297	39,733	4,909,819
1847* - -	90,118	1,270,706	57,395	5,673,266
1848 - -	97,400	1,366,164	65,216	6,530,542
1849 - -	105,126	1,463,651	52,902	6,784,494
1850* - -	111,458	1,374,968	52,371	7,092,209
1851 - -	116,397	1,375,257	65,510	7,396,895
1852 - -	123,404	1,495,984	78,559	7,707,917
1853 - -	139,765	1,552,285	71,395	7,929,708
1854 - -	148,851	1,576,750	63,255	8,144,119

* 1847, 1850.—To these years have been added information from the Lower Darling District, not received when the General Returns of Live Stock were published in 1848 and 1851.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

EXPORT OF WOOL.

Return of the Quantity and Value of Wool exported from the Colony of New South Wales from the Year 1837 to 1854 inclusive.

Year.	Quantity.	Value as entered in the Returns of Exports.
	lbs.	£
1837	4,273,715	320,527
1838	5,428,993	384,346
1839	6,597,981	397,278
1840	7,668,960	498,210
1841	6,675,829	431,802
1842	6,599,252	443,729
1843	8,298,359	467,088
1844	9,215,944	471,300
1845	10,522,921	612,705
1846	10,072,570	668,544
1847	12,169,684	706,313
1848	12,445,048	683,623
1849	13,396,525	663,965
1850	14,270,622	788,051
1851	15,268,473	828,302
1852	11,354,096	688,317
1853	16,358,869	999,896
1854	18,976,300	1,181,956

No. XXVIII.—SLAVE TRADE.

Class A.—Correspondence with the British Commissioners at Sierra Leone, Havana, the Cape of Good Hope, and London; and Reports from British Vice-Admiralty Courts, and from British Naval Officers, relating to the Slave Trade, from March 1, 1855, to March 31, 1856.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament, by command of Her Majesty.*]

THE reports from Sierra Leone give the report on slave trade for the year 1855, which show that the total number of cases prosecuted before the mixed commissions since their establishment in Sierra Leone, in June 1819, up to the end of December 1855, was 531, whereof 503 were cases of condemnation, and 28 were either withdrawn, dismissed, or restored to the claimants. In the same period, there have been emancipated by these mixed courts 64,615 slaves, of whom 56,935 have been registered.

The report from Havana for 1855 said that the slave trade during the past year has been carried on with more than its ordinary activity. During 1855, 4,806 Bozals were got on shore at various places, of whom 125 were captured; and adding to these one-third for those respecting whom there was no information, it results that no less than 6,480 have been introduced during the last twelve months, and are held in slavery. Besides that number of Africans, 3,012 Chinese, and 416 Yucatan Indians have arrived, so that the labouring hands in Cuba have had an accession during 1855 of 6,408 slaves, and of 3,428 under contract, making a total of 6,836 available for the agriculture, or on other service of the island. For the current year 1856, no less than four of the most powerful houses of Havana have engaged in bringing over Chinese, so that at least 10,000 colonists from China may be expected. The project has again been agitated, and is being discussed, of importing free negro labourers from Africa, females if possible, and to the extent of 40,000 or 50,000. There are great difficulties to be surmounted in combining free and slave labour. There are numerous slavers to arrive. At Santa Cruz, 500 Bozals were landed, for which there were given 1,102 gold ounces, or upon 468 slaves, the rest being weak and sickly, rather over 40 dollars a head, which must be considered a remarkably cheap bargain of its kind.

The report from the Cape of Good Hope states that there has been no exportation of slaves from the Mozambique during the whole of last year; neither has there been any quantity of slaves awaiting exportation along the entire extent of coast; yet a system of internal traffic in natives exists amongst the Boers on the north-eastern borders of the colony. The parties principally implicated are the Boers of the Trans-Vaal territory, whose independence was acknowledged a few years ago in a treaty concluded with them. There was enclosed in the report a letter from Dr. Livingstone, travelling in Africa. In this letter he recommended the formation of a road in a south-eastern direction, with a view to increase the commerce of

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the Western Colonies. The following is Dr. Livingstone's description of the articles which would likely constitute the trade:—

“New articles of export could be introduced. American cotton may be seen everywhere rotting on the trees; the people make very little use of it. Castor oil is used for anointing the head only. The manioc root is nearly all starch, and, growing so luxuriantly, this article could be produced much more cheaply than where wheat or potatoes are used. Many other articles will suggest themselves to your mind, but there is one which eminently deserves a trial. The country to which I refer chiefly is an elevated table-land resembling Natal and the country of the Boers of Pretorius. Wheat will not grow in the low fertile plains of Natal, while on the elevated land above it may be produced, perhaps, more easily than anywhere else in the world. Now, when we come near the Quango, we descend from what appears to be a lofty sierra, and on the fertile plains alone, if I am not misinformed, has wheat been attempted to be grown; hence, all the wheat eaten has to be imported. It would be worth much to ascertain if wheat cannot be grown on the elevated lands to which I have referred, for a people, not wheat fed, want stamina. Pap made of the meal of the manioc quickly leaves the stomach with a sense of emptiness, and apart from this does not furnish the material by which muscle is formed. It is thus to be expected the colonists and their children will be wanting in muscular development and enterprise. As a lover of all ranks and degrees of my fellow men, I believe this subject deserves the serious attention of your Government, and mean to present a memorial to the Governor on the subject; I shall let you know the result.”

The report from Loanda showed a considerable diminution of the slave trade. The Municipal Chamber remonstrated against the Portuguese Decree, providing for the registration and partial emancipation of slaves. But this measure was enforced without remission.

The report from naval officers from the West of Africa station, stated that the slave trade is extinct in the neighbourhood of the Rivers Pongas, Nunez, and Sherbro.

From the East Coast of Africa station the report stated that Africans are frequently conveyed by Arab vessels to various places on the west coast of Madagascar, where they are exchanged for tortoise-shell, bees-wax, sandal-wood, &c.; and when a sufficiency of these articles cannot be procured, it is common for an exchange of slaves to take place at the rate of one Kaffir for two, and sometimes three natives of the island; the tribes who are enslaved by them being considered inferior to the Africans, and more likely to run away. Comero Islands have a population of 1,200, a large proportion being slaves.

Rear-Admiral Johnston, from the Brazil station, reported that the efforts made to prevent the landing of slaves have been crowned with complete success.

No. XXIX.—SLAVE TRADE.

Class B.—Correspondence with British Ministers and Agents in Foreign Countries, and with Foreign Ministers in England, relative to the Slave-Trade. From April 1st, 1855, to March 31st, 1855.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

RESPECTING Africa, the correspondence first relates to the Bight of Benin, and refers to the proceedings taken for the expulsion of Lamagnere, and other slave-traders. From Lagos, Consul Campbell reports that the total quantity of palm-oil expected to be shipped in 1855, was 12,000 tons. The average value in England is 40*l.* per ton and upwards, and the local value 20*l.* the ton, of which one-fourth goes to the trader as profit, and three-fourths to the manufacturers, the industrious natives. The raw material being procured from the trees growing indigenous in immense numbers, the whole of that three-fourths may be considered as profit. Predatory excursions were still made against the towns near the Niger, and thousands of captives taken and sent to Whydah for sale. Every convert to Christianity that is made by the Missionary Societies, and they amount now to about 500, is an accession to the number of the peaceable and industrious classes. The converts to Christianity have given up the slave-trade for ever, and are devoting their time either to agriculture or to trade. Abbeo-Kuta is a large town of 60,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, having at least 20,000 fighting men.

From the Old Calabar, the reports announce that the horrid practice of twin-murder, and the ordeal of the poison-nut still prevail. Treaties were formed with the king and chiefs of the New Calabar river, prescribing the size of oil casks. The estimate of the oil produced in Calabar is from 4,000 to 5,000 tons a year. Considerable disputes have arisen in trading matters between the supercargoes and native traders of the River Cameroons. A treaty was also made with the chiefs of Old Town, Old Calabar, for the abolition of human sacrifices, the use of the poison-nut, and the practice of killing twin-children. Addresses of congratulation had been presented to Consul Thomas J. Hutchinson by the chiefs of Old Calabar, and by the Missionaries of the Church of Scotland.

Consul-General Hill, of Sherbro River, reported that the indigenous slave-trade is more actively prosecuted than ever. The traffic in palm-oil, palm-kernels, and rice, cannot co-exist with the slave-trade.

From Brazil it is reported that there were still some landing of slaves, but repeated endeavours were made with the Brazilian authorities to institute a searching inquiry on the subject, which resulted in a condemnatory sentence.

From Bahia it is reported that the slave-traffic had completely ceased. The injury arising from the want of labourers will be felt at no distant period, should the emigration of slaves be continued to the southern ports of

the empire. The duty of 100 rs. 000 dols. levied on exportation, is not sufficient to diminish the evil. During the last year, 1,835 slaves were exported, namely:—583 taken away from the field; 836 from Bahia, and its neighbourhood; and 416 without declaration from whence they came.

The sugar-mills in the province are 1,651; of these 253 are worked by water, 124 by steam, and 1,247 by animals. The number of labourers regularly employed in those mills are from 48,000 to 50,000 individuals, of which near 40,000 are slaves, and the remainder are free. The produce of those mills, one year with another, is 4,000,000 of arrobas of sugar, 200,000 to 300,000 arrobas of rapaduras, and 5,000,000 gallons of molasses.

The price of slaves within the district of Bahia for the half year ending June 30, 1855, was, for an African male, 126*l.* to 127*l.*; ditto female, 110*l.* to 115*l.*; a Creole male, 127*l.* to 139*l.*; ditto with professions, 196*l.* to 254*l.*; ditto female, 115*l.* 12*s.* to 127*l.* On the 13th February, 1856, Consul Morgan reported the capture of the American schooner *Mary E. Smith*, under the following circumstances:—With a capacity of only 122 tons, 500 human beings were crammed into her on the coast of Africa, of whom 133 had died previous to her capture, and subsequently, until her arrival in this port, 67 Africans expired from exhaustion consequent on starvation and disease, their bodies being eaten into by vermin. Of the remainder landed, 76 have been buried; and of the survivors, 109 are in the hospital suffering from the disease contracted on board. Such is the deplorable result of this inhuman traffic.

But as a retributive act of justice the master and three seamen are likewise at present in the hospital, dangerously ill from the effects of disease caught from the unfortunate individuals whom they were instrumental in tearing away from their country.

From Para, Consul Vines reported that 25 slaves had worked out their freedom by paying their owners their full value. The value of slave-grown produce exported in 1854 was 72,911*l.* against 121,208*l.* in 1853. The total value of exports was 662,336*l.*

In Pernambuco, the price of slaves in December 1855 was, for an African male, 69*l.* to 80*l.*; African female, 69*l.* to 80*l.*; Creole male, 80*l.* to 90*l.*; Creole with trades, 103*l.* to 117*l.*; Creole female, 80*l.* to 97*l.*; infant sucking to 5 years, 22*l.* to 34*l.*; children, 9 to 12 years, 34*l.* to 69*l.* No foreign slave trade has taken place during 1854–5, but the equally immoral internal traffic has continued in full force. The population of Pernambuco was 693,450, of whom 527,000 were free, 125,000 freed, 145,000 slaves, and 8,950 foreigners. The productions of Pernambuco were 24,983 bags of cotton, value 80,000*l.*; 86,000 tons of sugar, value 1,548,000*l.*; hides 110,000, value 58,500*l.*; rum, 10,000 pipes; 200,000 lbs. of sweetmeats, value 5,000*l.*; cocoa, nuts, woods, hoofs, &c., 20,000*l.* Total, 1,811,500*l.*

In Rio Grande do Sul, Consul Vereker reported the price of slaves to be for agricultural males, 78*l.*; female, 70*l.* 8*s.*; domestic male, 87*l.*; female, 81*l.* The prices of slaves had an upward tendency.

In Rio de Janeiro, an agricultural male was worth 116*l*. to 140*l*.; female, 93*l*. to 116*l*.; a domestic male, 116*l*. to 175*l*.; female, 116*l*. to 163*l*. The amount of exports of staple productions, the result of slave labour, during the year 1855 was 2,409,543; bags of coffee, value, including shipping charges and duties, 7,214,771*l*.; sugar, 8,200 cases, 126,843*l*.; 19,398 planks of rosewood, 87,180*l*.; other articles, such as tobacco, &c., 300,000*l*. Total, 7,678,794*l*.

The return contains further correspondence with France respecting the captures made by the West African squadron in 1854; with Mexico, respecting the refusal of Spanish Government to check importation of Yucatan Indians into Cuba; with Persia, respecting slave trade in the Persian Gulf; with Portugal, on fugitive slaves at Oporto; with Spain, on Yucatan Indians imported into Cuba; with Tripoli and Turkey on the arrival of several vessels in Tripoli with slaves; and with the United States of America on the *Mary E. Smith*.

No. XXX.—FURTHER PAPERS RELATIVE TO THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN AUSTRALIA.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty, 26th July, 1856.*]

THE quantity and value of gold exported from the colonies of New South Wales and Victoria for the quarter ended 31st December, 1855, was 763,923 oz. 3 dwts. 13 grs., value, 3,048,428*l*. 14*s*. 10*d*. The total estimated net quantity and value of gold exported from both colonies from 29th May, 1851, to the same date, was 11,198,667 oz. 11 dwts. 13 grs., value, 40,995,651*l*. 5*s*. 2*d*. From Victoria, it is reported that the Acts imposing a duty on the exportation of gold, and regulating its collection, did not diminish the price of gold to the miner, but caused the tax to fall on the importers and large capitalists. The amount of duty collected in the months of May, June, and July, 1855, was 70,076*l*. 17*s*. The price of gold on the 1st of January, 1855, was, at Melbourne, 3*l*. 17*s*. 3*d*.; Castlemaine, 3*l*. 16*s*. 9*d*.; Ballarat, 3*l*. 17*s*. In July 31st, at Melbourne, 3*l*. 16*s*. 6*d*.; Castlemaine, 3*l*. 16*s*. 3*d*.; Ballarat, 3*l*. 17*s*. 3*d*. Bank drafts sold at 2 premium.

The population on the gold fields in the colony of Victoria on the 22nd December, 1855, was 146,042, including 19,244 Chinese.

No. XXXI.—FURTHER PAPERS RELATIVE TO THE ALTERATIONS IN THE CONSTITUTION OF THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

THESE papers contain petitions and addresses of the inhabitants of New South Wales, and correspondence of the Governor of the Australian colonies, with despatches from the Secretary of State regarding the new constitutions.

No. XXXII.—STATISTICAL TABLES RELATING TO THE COLONIAL
AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. (PART I.)

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

EAST INDIES.

POPULATION.—The area and population of British India in the year 1850 were as follows:—British States, 752,008 square miles, with a population of 123,931,369. Native States, 613,931 square miles; population 47,443,207. Foreign States, 1,254 square miles; population, 484,479. Total, 1,367,193 square miles; population, 171,859,055.

EDUCATION.—In the year 1853 there were 413 Government educational institutions, with 772 teachers, and 28,179 pupils, the cost of which was 100,210*l*. There were 520 scholarships, value 11,831*l*.

CRIME.—The number of persons apprehended, and the results of proceedings in 1853, were as follows:—In Bengal there were 104,275 apprehended in 1852; there were 63,316 convicted, and 35,864 acquitted. In the North-West Provinces, in 1853, there were 96,697 apprehended, 60,827 convicted, and 34,635 acquitted. In Madras there were, in 1853, 202,098 apprehended, 51,801 convicted, 83,278 acquitted, and 63,831 discharged without trial. In Bombay there were, in 1853, 71,008 apprehended, 31,959 convicted, 20,893 acquitted, and 16,875 discharged without trial.

MILITARY.—In 1853 there were 282,220 military, of whom 28,715 were Royal, and 253,505 Company's troops.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 28,133,546*l*., expenditure in India 26,834,161*l*., surplus 1,299,385*l*., home charges 3,262,289*l*., net deficiency 1,962,904*l*. From 1840 to 1854 there has been a net deficiency of 1,000,000*l*. to 2,000,000*l*. yearly, except in the years 1850 to 1853, when there was a net surplus of 600,000*l*. to 700,000*l*. The net revenue in 1854 consisted of 14,843,802*l*. from land, excise, Sayer and Moturpha revenues; 45,729*l*. from the Mint; 490,528*l*. Post-office; 1,113,612*l*. Customs; 2,145,902*l*. salt; 3,359,020*l*. opium; 8,573*l*. tobacco; 1,692,844*l*. miscellaneous receipts. The expenditure in 1854 consisted in 2,067,672*l*. civil and political establishments, including contingent charges; 2,129,657*l*. judicial and police charges; 10,217,056*l*. military charges, exclusive of war charges; 316,424*l*. marine and pilotage charges; 2,671,249*l*. interest of debt; 2,841,760*l*. territorial payments in England; 420,529*l*. value of stores exported; 9,190,473*l*. other charges, comprising collection of revenue, &c. The Indian debt and bond debt in England were, in 1854, 56,233,686*l*., bearing interest 2,596,642*l*. In 1840 the debt was 34,484,997*l*., interest 1,595,778*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS, AND EXPORTS.—The tonnage entered in 1854 was 12,789 vessels of 1,554,300 tons entered, and 13,292 vessels of 1,681,271 tons cleared. Total, 26,081 vessels of 3,235,571 tons. The number of

British vessels was 1,875 of 87,926 tons entered, and 2,312 vessels of 1,005,117 tons cleared. Total, 4,187 vessels of 1,884,043 tons.

The value of imports by sea, including treasure, in the year ending 30th April, 1853, was 16,902,240*l*. The imports included 16,573,109*l*. on private account, and 329,131*l*. on East India Company's account; and they were divided into 8,387,662*l*. Bengal, 1,417,386*l*. Madras, and 7,097,192*l*. Bombay. The imports consisted of 10,070,863*l*. merchandise, and 6,831,377*l*. treasure. According to countries, the imports of British India were, 9,576,025*l*. from the United Kingdom, 3,297,751*l*. from China, 980,827*l*. from Arabia, and the remainder from other countries. The principal articles of import were 3,667,433*l*. cotton piece goods, and 1,130,500*l*. cotton twist and yarn.

The value of exports, domestic and foreign produce, in the year 1853, was 21,519,863*l*., of which 11,214,929*l*. from Bengal, 2,157,996*l*. from Madras, and 8,146,939*l*. from Bombay. The exports consisted of 20,464,633*l*. merchandise, and 1,055,230*l*. treasure. The exports were 11,214,930*l*. from Calcutta, 3,157,996*l*. from Madras, and 8,146,937*l*. from Bombay. The value of domestic produce exported in 1853 was distributed, 7,151,509*l*. to the United Kingdom, 4,348,857*l*. to China, 714,244*l*. to Penang, &c.; in all, 15,318,467*l*. Of the foreign produce 1,405,708*l*. was sent to the United Kingdom, 3,302,988*l*. to China, &c.; in all, 6,201,396*l*. The principal articles of export were, 7,034,075*l*. opium, 3,629,494*l*. raw cotton 1,809,685*l*. indigo, 1,729,762*l*. sugar, 1,055,230*l*. treasure, &c.

CANADA.

AREA AND POPULATION.—The area of Canada was 242,482 square miles, or 155,188,425 acres; of which 7,307,950 acres cultivated, and 10,631,373 acres uncultivated. The total population in 1852 was 1,842,265. There were 7·59 inhabitants to a square mile. Upper Canada had 952,004, and Lower Canada 890,261 inhabitants. The population of Lower Canada comprised 669,528 of French origin. According to religious persuasions there were 268,592 belonging to the Church of England, 914,561 to the Church of Rome (chiefly in Lower Canada), and 237,683 Presbyterians, &c. &c.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The revenue in 1854 was 1,590,635*l*., expenditure 1,737,186*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS, AND EXPORTS.—The number of vessels entered and cleared in 1854 were—1,416 vessels of 618,926 tons entered, and 1,558 vessels of 693,588 tons cleared. There were navigating in Indian waters in 1854, entered 2,279,529 tons British Colonial, and 1,284,523 tons American; and cleared 1,519,318 tons British Colonial, and 1,246,051 tons American. There were built and registered at ports in Canada, in 1854, 104 sailing vessels of 51,822 tons, and 16 steam-vessels of 2,233 tons; or in all, 120 vessels of 54,055 tons. There were registered 180 vessels of 62,053 tons.

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In 1854 the value of imports was 9,119,098*l.*, and of exports 5,179,319*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—There were, in 1852, 4,355,269 acres under crop, 2,864,043 acres under pasture, and 88,638 acres in gardens. There were also 10,631,373 acres uncultivated, wood and waste land. Total 17,939,323 acres. There were 195,719 occupiers, of whom 85,320 of 50 to 100 acres, 36,665 of 20 to 50 acres, 36,144 of 100 to 200 acres, 24,223 of 10 acres and under. The extent of land under the various crops was—wheat 1,208,318 acres, produce 15,756,493 bushels, at the average value of 4*s.*, value 3,836,169*l.*; Indian corn 94,554 acres, produced 2,090,089 bushels at 2*s.* 6*d.*, 235,135*l.*; Oats 992,273 acres, produced 20,369,247 bushels at 1*s.*, 916,616*l.*; potatoes 151,193 acres, produced 9,406,202 bushels at 1*s.* 3*d.*, 529,099*l.* There were 386,290 horses, valued at 12*l.* 10*s.* per head, value 4,345,763*l.*; working oxen 304,268, at 6*l.*, 1,643,048; milch cows 592,622, at 3*l.* 15*s.*, 2,000,000*l.*; young cattle 439,221, at 1*l.* 10*s.*, 592,948*l.*; sheep 1,697,633, at 7*s.* 6*d.*, 572,951*l.*; swine 829,290, at 1*l.*, 746,361. Total value, 9,901,170*l.*

NEW BRUNSWICK.

POPULATION.—In 1851 the population was 193,800, of whom 191,626 were white, 1,058 coloured, and 1,116 Indians. The number of immigrants in 1851 was 40,432.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 163,151*l.*, and the expenditure 207,723*l.* The revenue consisted principally in import duties 128,997*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The number of vessels and tonnage entered and cleared in 1856 were, number of vessels 3,700 of 625,267 tons entered, and 3,745 vessels, of 100,886 tons, cleared. The number of vessels built in 1854 was 135, of 99,426 tons.

In 1854 the value of imports was 2,068,773*l.*, and of exports 1,104,215*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—The land under cultivation in 1854 was 643,954 acres. The crops were 206,635 bushels of wheat; 1,411,164 bushels of oats; 2,792,394 bushels of potatoes, &c. There were 22,044 horses; 106,263 horned cattle; 168,039 sheep; and 47,932 swine. There were 26,369 inhabited houses. The wages of labour were 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* for domestics per month, with board and lodging; 2*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* predial per month; and 5*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* trades per day.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1851 was 276,117. There were 1,096 schools, and 31,354 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The revenue for the year 1854 was 166,501*l.*, and expenditure 169,159*l.* The principal revenue consists of import and export duties 103,778*l.* Savings banks deposits 16,400 &c.

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The expenditure included 35,502*l.* for roads and bridges; 44,982*l.* for railways, &c.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1851 there were 3,402 vessels of 340,039 tons entered, and 3,247 vessels of 338,038 tons cleared. In 1854 there were built 244 vessels of 52,814 tons.

In 1854 the imports amounted to 1,791,082*l.*; and the exports to 1,247,668*l.*; the greatest proportion of which were to and from Halifax.

AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES.—In 1852 the produce of the various crops was as follows:—Wheat 297,157 bushels; barley 196,097 bushels; rye 61,438 bushels; oats 1,384,437 bushels; buckwheat 170,301 bushels; Indian corn 34,475 bushels; peas and beans 21,638 bushels; grass seeds 3,686; potatoes 1,986,789 bushels; turnips 467,127; other roots 32,325 bushels; hay 287,837 tons; butter 3,613,890 lbs.; and cheese 652,069 lbs. There were also in 1851, 28,789 horses; 156,857 neat cattle; 86,856 milch cows; 282,180 sheep; and 51,533 swine.

The number of vessels employed in the fisheries was 812, of 43,333 tons, with 3,681 men, and 5,161 boats, with 6,713 men. The fishery consisted of dry fish, mackerel and herring. The value of the fish cured was 217,270*l.*

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The total population in 1854 was 71,284. There were 240 schools and 11,556 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 30,688*l.*, and the expenditure 35,266*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were 106 vessels built, of 24,111 tons. The total value of imports was 273,656*l.*, and of exports 151,499*l.*

NEWFOUNDLAND.

POPULATION.—The population in 1845 was 96,864.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were 1,043 vessels of 129,229 tons entered, and 927 vessels of 117,193 tons cleared. There were built 42 vessels of 2,817 tons. The value of imports in 1854 was 964,527*l.*, and of exports 1,019,572*l.* The principal articles of import were corn flower, 173,170*l.*; woollen and slops, 98,110*l.*; bread, 88,812*l.*, &c., &c. Among the exports there were fish, 549,288*l.*; oil, 361,485*l.*; skins, 68,215*l.*; &c., &c.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 81,007*l.*, and the expenditure 77,493*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1850 there were 29,654 acres in crop, and 52,605 acres not in crop. There were 2,409 horses, 8,135 horned cattle, 5,750 sheep, and 5,791 goats.

BERMUDA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1851 was 11,092, of whom 4,669 white, and 6,423 coloured. There were 12 schools, and 457 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 15,881*l.*, and the expenditure 16,388*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were 169 vessels of 27,897 tons entered, and 180 vessels of 28,896 tons cleared. In 1854 the value of imports was 120,370*l.*, and of exports 25,563*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1850 the produce was, sweet potatoes 24,322 bushels; Irish potatoes 24,946; carrots 4,346; turnips 7,420; Indian corn 924; and barley 269 bushels. Arrowroot, in a rough state, 854,329 lbs.; onions 838,070 lbs.; aloe 6 lbs.; garden vegetable 256,136 lbs. There were also 259 horses, 5 mules, 31 asses, 1,643 neat cattle, and 227 sheep.

HONDURAS.

EDUCATION.—In 1853 there were in Honduras 7 schools, and 631 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 26,327*l.*, and the expenditure 19,376*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1853 there were entered 109 vessels of 22,061 tons, and cleared 113 vessels of 23,936 tons. In 1854 the imports were 241,686*l.*, and exports 452,313*l.*

WEST INDIES—BAHAMAS.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1854 was 27,619, of whom 5,499 were white, and 22,120 were coloured. There were 27 schools, and 1,943 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 23,970*l.*, and the expenditure 26,259*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 310 vessels of 29,907 tons, and cleared 314 vessels of 30,156 tons. The imports were 131,995*l.*, and the exports 69,502*l.*

WEST INDIES—JAMAICA.

AREA, POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The area was 6,400 square miles, and the population in 1844 377,433, of whom 15,776 were white, and 361,657 coloured. There were 17,536 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the net revenue was 215,806*l.*, and the expenditure 211,439*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered

was 551, of 93,894 tons; and the number cleared 511, of 83,723 tons. In 1853 the imports were 864,094*l.*, and the exports 837,276*l.* In 1854, the exports were 932,316*l.* In 1854 there were exported 4,098,946 lbs. of coffee; 5,551,538 lbs. of currants; 1,639,999 gallons of rum; 440,911 cwts. of sugar.

WEST INDIA VIRGIN ISLANDS (TORTOLA).

POPULATION.—The population in 1841 was 6,689.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 2,347*l.*, and the expenditure 2,347*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 832 vessels, of 2,993 tons; and cleared, 1,079 vessels, of 4,506 tons. The value of imports was 4,500*l.*, and of exports 5,756*l.*

WEST INDIES—ST. CHRISTOPHER.

AREA AND POPULATION.—The area was 68,171 square miles; the population 20,741.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 14,645*l.*; and the expenditure 19,994*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered were 382, of 21,744 tons; and cleared, 359, of 21,562 tons. The value of imports was 107,965*l.*, and of exports 133,089*l.*

WEST INDIES—NEVIS.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—In 1844 the population was 9,571. There were 14 schools, and 1,707 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 3,875*l.*, and the expenditure 4,123*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 85 vessels, of 4,921 tons; and cleared, 85 vessels, of 4,518 tons. The amount of imports was 20,933*l.*, and the amount of exports 32,794*l.* In 1854 there were exported 5,202,295 lbs. of sugar.

WEST INDIES—ANTIGUA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1851 was 37,136. There were 47 schools, and 4,579 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 25,570*l.*, and the expenditure 23,627*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered was 627, of 39,929 tons; and cleared, 600 vessels of 35,907 tons. The value of imports was 171,076*l.*; of exports, 215,700*l.*

WEST INDIES—MONTSEERRAT.

POPULATION.—The population in 1851 was 7,053. There were 18 schools and 1,623 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 2,701*l.*, and the expenditure 3,188*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there 149 vessels, of 4,562 tons, entered; and 141 vessels, of 4,519 tons, cleared. The value of imports was 8,964*l.*, and of exports 14,516*l.*

WEST INDIES—DOMINICA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1844 was 22,220. The number of schools was 20, and of scholars 1,561.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the amount of revenue was 8,452*l.*, and of expenditure 8,827*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered was 349, of 10,412 tons; and cleared, 356, of 10,507 tons. The imports were 52,509*l.*, and the exports 78,355*l.*

WEST INDIES—ST. LUCIA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—In 1854 there was a population of 24,123, of whom 947 were white and 23,176 coloured. There were 23 schools and 1,243 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 15,930*l.*, and the expenditure 16,316*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered, 204 vessels, of 12,471 tons; and cleared, 202 vessels, of 11,362 tons. The value of imports was 96,309*l.*; and of exports, 55,836*l.* The principal articles exported were, 148,983 lbs. cocoa, 116,490 gallons molasses, 59,242 cwt. sugar, and 14,364 gallons rum.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 3,290 acres under canes, 97 under coffee, 87 under cocoa, and 1,154 under provision. The articles of produce were, sugar, 7,414,100 lbs.; coffee, 10,250 lbs.; cocoa, 17,480 lbs.; rum, 77,751 gallons; and molasses, 208,625 gallons.

WEST INDIES—ST. VINCENT.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—In 1851 the population was 30,128. There were 28 schools and 1,702 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 20,247*l.*, and the expenditure 20,853*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854, the number of ships entered was 337, of 21,486 tons; and cleared, 363, of 22,918 tons. The value of imports was 145,772*l.*; and of exports, 176,797*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In the year 1854, there were produced, 15,134,536 lbs. sugar; 255,434 gallons rum; 128,554 gallons molasses; 430,207 lbs. arrowroot; 400 lbs. cocoa; 16,041 lbs. cotton; and 100 lbs. ginger.

WEST INDIES—BARBADOES.

AREA AND POPULATION.—The area of Barbadoes was 166 and three-tenths square miles. The population, in 1851, 135,939, of whom 15,824 were white, and 120,115 coloured.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854, the revenue was 69,595*l*; and the expenditure, 71,680*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854, there were entered, 802 vessels, of 95,391 tons; and cleared, 771 vessels, of 89,188 tons. The value of imports was, 596,843*l*; and of exports, 945,849*l*.

WEST INDIES—GRENADA.

AREA, POPULATION, AND EDUCATION.—The area of Grenada is 133 square miles. The population, in 1851, 32,671, besides 3,011 aliens and residents. There were 30 schools, and 1,723 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854, the revenue was 15,266*l*; and the expenditure, 18,044*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854, there were entered, 309 vessels, of 16,959 tons; and cleared, 360 vessels, of 16,841 tons. The value of imports was, 112,411*l*; and of exports, 138,397*l*.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854, there were 13,320 acres of land under crop, and 27,868 uncultivated. The produce was, 10,585,978 lbs. sugar; 7,883 lbs. coffee; 441,761 lbs. cocoa; 39,607 lbs. cotton; 1,105,033 gallons rum; 23,027 gallons molasses; 327 gallons sugar.

WEST INDIES—TOBAGO.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—In 1853, the total population was 14,378, of whom 160 were white, and 14,218 coloured. In 1854, there were 23 schools, and 1,928 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854, the revenue was 8,014*l*; and the expenditure, 8,014*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854, there were 72 vessels, of 5,827 tons, entered; and 72 vessels, of 5,827 tons, cleared. The imports were 52,307*l*; and the exports, 49,755*l*.

WEST INDIES—TRINIDAD.

POPULATION, RELIGION, AND EDUCATION.—In 1851, the population was 68,600, of whom 16,246 belonged to the Church of England; 43,605 to

the Church of Rome; 1,016 Mahomedans; 2,649 Gentoos; 880 Heathen; and there were 25 schools, and 1,766 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854, the revenue was 101,647*l.*; and the expenditure, 101,016*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1853, there were entered 623 vessels, of 66,415 tons; and cleared, 633 vessels, of 68,058 tons. In 1854, the value of imports was 559,067*l.*; and of exports, 380,873*l.* The exports comprised 3,379,158 lbs. cocoa, and 50,055,998 lbs. sugar.

WEST INDIES—BRITISH GUIANA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population of British Guiana in 1811 was 127,695, of whom 11,558 were Europeans, 14,754 mixed, 71,710 Africans, 7,670 East Indians, 2,003 Aborigines. In 1854 there were 39 schools, and 3,185 scholars, connected with the Church of England. In 1852 there were also 54 schools, and 4,914 scholars, connected with other denominations.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 244,231*l.*, and the expenditure 228,584*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered was 688 of 138,835 tons; and cleared, 638 vessels, of 111,560 tons. The value of imports was 916,498*l.*, and of exports 1,405,332*l.*

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population of these islands in 1854 was 500. There was 1 school, and 50 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 6,207*l.*, and the expenditure 5,695*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 55 vessels, of 23,728 tons. The value of imports was 21,100*l.*, and of exports 18,600*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 20,000 to 50,000 wild cattle, 1,000 to 3,000 wild horses, 500 pigs, 1,200 tame horses, 800 tame horned cattle, 2,500 sheep, and 100 goats.

AUSTRALIA—NEW SOUTH WALES.

POPULATION, EDUCATION, IMMIGRANTS, AND CRIME.—In 1854 the population was 251,315. There were 413 schools, and 25,953 scholars. The total number of immigrants was 10,002, of whom 7,309 were at public expense, and 2,693 at their own expense. There were 637 convictions, of whom 477 for felonies, and 98 for misdemeanours.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 1,239,147*l.*, and the expenditure 1,136,569*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1840 the number of vessels entered was 447, of 135,542 tons. In 1854 the number was 1,058, of 376,927

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tons. In 1840 there were cleared 433 vessels, of 129,370 tons. In 1854, 1,112 vessels, of 409,489 tons. The number of vessels built in 1854 was 33, of 1,952 tons, and registered 188, of 24,221 tons. The value of imports in 1844 was 780,198*l.*; in 1854, 5,981,063*l.* The value of exports in 1844 was 871,268*l.*, and in 1854, 4,050,126*l.* The quantity and value of gold exported was, in 1851, 144,120 oz. 17 dwt. 16 gr., 468,336*l.*; in 1852, 818,751 oz. 18 dwt. 17 gr., 2,660,946*l.*; in 1853, 548,052 oz. 19 dwts. 21 grs., 1,781,172*l.*; in 1854, 237,910 oz. 13 dwts. 23 grs., 773,209*l.*

CROWN LAND AND MINES.—In 1840 the amount received from the sale of Crown land was 97,499*l.*; in 1854, 319,533*l.*; in 1854 there were 12 coal mines, producing 116,642 tons coals, value 119,380*l.*

POST-OFFICES, LETTERS, AND NEWSPAPERS.—In 1840 there were 53 post-offices, 380,353 miles post-roads, 619,748 letters, and 920,070 newspapers. In 1854 there were 154 post-offices, 967,669 miles post-roads, 1,837,591 letters, and 1,919,192 newspapers.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1840 there were 122,906 acres of land under crops; in 1854 there were 130,944 acres. In 1840 the produce was—wheat, 1,066,394 bushels; maize, 777,947; barley, 96,389; oats, 39,270; rye, 8,863; millet, 3,338; potatoes, 10,750 tons; tobacco, 4,300 cwts.; hay, 21,329 tons. In 1854 the produce was—wheat, 786,278 bushels; maize, 843,310; barley, 36,812; oats, 27,441; rye, 816; millet, 637; potatoes, 15,168 tons; tobacco, 260 cwts.; and hay, 25,343 tons. In 1843 there were 55,739 horses, 850,160 horned cattle, 54,607 swine, and 3,452,539 sheep. In 1854, 148,851 horses, 1,576,750 horned cattle, 63,255 swine, and 8,144,119 sheep. There was produced in 1854, 48,268 cwts. of tallow, 57,959 gallons of wine, and 674 gallons of brandy. There were manufactured 74,878 cwt. soap, 1,963 cwt. tobacco, and 68,000 cwt. sugar refined. There were 140 mills for grinding grain.

AUSTRALIA.—VICTORIA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—In 1854 the population was estimated at 273,865. There were 391 schools, and 20,108 scholars, and the contributions was 107,165*l.*

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1851 the revenue was 379,975*l.*, and the expenditure 409,884*l.* In 1854 the revenue was 6,154,928*l.*, and the expenditure 6,043,049*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 2,596 vessels, of 794,604 tons, and cleared 2,607 vessels, of 798,837 tons. There were built in 1852, 3 vessels of 203 tons, and registered 62 vessels of 5,988 tons. The imports in 1851 were 1,056,437*l.* The exports, including gold, 1,422,909*l.* In 1854 the imports were, 17,659,051*l.*, and the exports 11,775,204*l.* In 1851 there were exported 145,137 ounces of gold, value 438,777*l.* In 1852, 1,988,526 ounces, 6,135,728*l.* In 1853, 2,497,723 ounces, 8,644,529*l.* In 1854, 2,144,699 ounces, 8,255,550*l.*

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AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 405,679 acres of land sold by Government. The produce in 1854 was 250,091 bushels of wheat, 130,746 bushels of oats, 8,382 tons of potatoes. There were 27,038 horses, 481,640 horned cattle, 5,332,007 sheep, and 9,278 pigs.

AUSTRALIA.—SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1854 was 92,545. The number of aborigines was 3,450. There were 125 schools, and 5,464 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 1,195,029*l.*, and the expenditure 630,813*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 476 vessels, of 146,666 tons; and cleared, 471 vessels, of 143,868 tons. The amount of imports was 2,147,107*l.*, and of exports 1,322,822*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 120,699 acres under crops. There were 10,184 horses, 74,220 horned cattle, 1,768,724 sheep, and 17,343 pigs.

AUSTRALIA.—WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

POPULATION.—In 1854 the population was 11,976.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 45,775*l.*, and the expenditure 45,171*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 93 vessels, of 38,963 tons; and cleared, 99 vessels, of 42,614 tons. The amount of imports was 128,260*l.*, and of exports 36,245*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 11,978 acres under crops. There were 4,676 horses, 20,777 horned cattle, 173,243 sheep, 4,442 swine, and 1,003 goats.

AUSTRALIA.—VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

POPULATION, RELIGION, AND EDUCATION.—The total population in 1851 was 68,609, of whom 45,073 belonged to the Church of England, 12,444 to the Church of Rome, 4,445 to the Church of Scotland, &c. In 1853 there were 66 schools, and 1,576 scholars. The number of immigrants arrived in 1854 was 9,525, and the number departed 11,280, of whom 1,624 had been convicts.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 275,555*l.*, and the expenditure 276,650*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS, AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 the number of vessels entered was 1,057, of 198,612 tons; and cleared, 1,028 vessels, of 200,398 tons. There were built 10 vessels, of 401 tons, and registered 90 vessels, of 10,344 tons. The value of imports was 2,604,680*l.*, and of exports 1,433,021*l.* The quantity of gold and gold dust exported in 1850 was

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5 boxes, value 3,920*l*. In 1851, 7,636 ounces, 24,817*l*.; in 1852, 145,420 ounces, 472,615*l*.; in 1853, 59,054 ounces, 217,538*l*.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1853 the receipts from the sale of Crown land was 90,690*l*. The produce in 1854 was 790,588 bushels wheat, 125,835 bushels barley, 526,547 bushels oats, 23,256 tons potatoes, 21,903 tons turnips. There were 17,384 horses, 103,752 cattle, 1,831,308 sheep, 1,629 goats, and 22,598 pigs.

AUSTRALIA—NEW ZEALAND.

POPULATION.—In 1854 the population was 28,683.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 226,903*l*, and the expenditure 240,613*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 257 vessels, of 68,338 tons; and cleared, 269 vessels, of 71,085 tons. The value of imports was 801,639*l*.; and of exports, 298,578*l*.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1851 there were 29,334 acres under cultivation. There were 2,938 horses, 34,552 horned cattle, 232,444 sheep, and 12,040 goats.

HONG-KONG.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1854 was 55,715, of whom 1,016 were white, and 54,699 were coloured. There were 11 schools, and 247 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 27,045*l*.; and the expenditure, 34,635*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 1,100 vessels, of 443,324 tons; and cleared, 195 vessels, of 98,323 tons. There were exported, 46,765 chests of opium, and 20,770,463 dollars treasure.

LABUAN.

POPULATION.—In 1854 the population was 1,150.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 3,535*l*.; and the expenditure, 4,307*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 555 vessels, of 8,682 tons; and cleared, 30 vessels, of 8,114 tons.

CEYLON.

AREA AND POPULATION.—The area of Ceylon was 24,700 square miles. The population in 1854 was 1,710,124, of whom 7,519 were white, and 1,682,980 coloured. There were 22,114 scholars. There were 508,915 persons engaged in agriculture, 79,499 in manufactures, and 64,316 in commerce.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 408,041*l.*; and the expenditure, 393,268*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 2,870 vessels, of 325,656 tons, and cleared 2,916 vessels, of 320,310 tons. The value of imports was 2,597,326*l.*, and of exports 2,245,288*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 5,373,413 acres of uncultivated land, 354,418 acres in pasture, and 738,348 acres under crop. The produce was 5,319,760 bushels paddy; 1,144,494 bushels fine grain; 623,844 bushels coffee; 235,688 lbs. cotton; and 3,667,628 lbs. tobacco. There were 2,675 horses; 669,991 horned cattle; 43,353 goats; 37,427 sheep.

MAURITIUS.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The area was 208 square miles. The population in 1851 was 192,503, of whom 60,350 were occupied in agriculture, 5,322 in manufacture, and 5,419 in commerce. There were 5,462 scholars at school.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 366,867*l.*, and the expenditure 372,370*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 576 vessels, of 195,537 tons; and cleared, 572 vessels, of 195,702 tons. The value of imports was 1,492,788*l.*, and of exports 1,246,401*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 167,989 acres of land under crop, and 54,390 acres uncultivated. There were produced 936,607 cwts. of sugar, and 630,741 gallons of rum. There were 12,339 horses, 12,967 cattle, and 17,076 sheep.

NATAL.

AREA, POPULATION, AND EDUCATION.—The area of Natal was 18,000 square miles, and the population 120,627, of whom 7,629 were white, and 112,938 were coloured. There were 20 schools, and 779 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the income was 31,397*l.*, and the expenditure, 32,495*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 38 vessels, of 8,229 tons; and cleared, 39 vessels, of 7,823 tons. The total value of imports was 124,722*l.*, and of exports 43,599*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—There were in 1854, 3,806 horses, 114,793 horned cattle, 12,434 sheep, and 18,050 goats.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

AREA, POPULATION, AND EDUCATION.—The area was 118,256 square miles. The population in 1853, 224,827, of whom 85,379 were white, and 115,699 coloured. There were 121 schools, and 13,951 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1853 the revenue was 308,472*l.*, and the expenditure 268,111*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1853 there were entered 1,039 vessels, of 323,894 tons; and cleared, 1,036 vessels, of 316,873 tons. The value of imports was 1,651,597*l.*, and of exports 1,064,883*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1853 there were 211,376 acres under crop. The produce was 864,272 bushels wheat, 302,753 bushels barley, 846,520 bushels oats, 258,202 bushels maize, 50,496,826 lbs. oat hay, 1,224,529 lbs. dried fruit, 34,316 pipes wine, and 4,912 pipes brandy. There were 51,847 horses for husbandry, 68,984 horses for breeding, and 29,412 colts, 5,004,595 sheep, 471,654 cattle. The produce was 4,275,126 lbs. wool, 479,969 lbs. tallow, 327,042 lbs. butter, 198,506 lbs. soap, 357,429 skins, and 24,143 hides.

ST. HELENA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1854 was 6,263. There were 12 schools, and 674 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the amount of revenue was 16,749*l.*, and of expenditure 20,367*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 326 vessels, of 155,770 tons; and cleared, 40 vessels, of 12,534 tons. The value of imports in 1851 was 66,219*l.*, and of exports 11,673*l.*

GOLD COAST.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population was 151,346, including 31 white persons. There were 33 schools, and 1,343 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 10,211*l.*, and the expenditure 9,376*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 50 vessels, of 10,366 tons; and cleared, 50 vessels, of 10,366 tons. The total imports were 107,200*l.*, and exports 200,002*l.*

SIERRA LEONE.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1851 was 44,501, of whom 125 white, and 24,376 coloured. There were 65 schools, and 7,180 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 29,225*l.*, and the expenditure 27,584*l.*

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 352 vessels, of 34,669 tons; and cleared, 273, of 34,265 tons. The value of imports was 110,812*l.*, and of exports 154,126*l.*

AGRICULTURE.—In 1853 there were 9,414 acres under cultivation. The produce was 35,908 bushels cassada, 2,008 bushels cocoa, 12,528 bushels ginger, 3,303 cwts. jams, &c.

GAMBIA.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1851 was 5,693, of whom 191 were white, and 5,502 coloured. There were 8 schools, and 1,036 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the revenue was 16,103*l*., and expenditure 18,686*l*.

SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1854 there were entered 211 vessels, of 28,620 tons; and 220 vessels, of 27,210 tons cleared. The value of imports was 120,047*l*., and of exports 173,882*l*.

GIBRALTAR.

POPULATION.—The population was estimated at 16,000.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the amount of revenue was 28,986*l*., and of expenditure 28,305*l*.

SHIPPING.—In 1854 there were entered 3,673 vessels, of 589,560 tons; and cleared, 3,598 vessels, of 581,463 tons.

MALTA.

AREA AND POPULATION.—The area was 115 square miles; the population 131,401. There were 32 schools and 4,969 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the amount of revenue was 123,772*l*., and of expenditure 141,304*l*.

SHIPPING.—In 1854 there were entered 4,783 vessels, of 886,790 tons; and cleared, 4,551 vessels, of 844,242 tons. There belonged to the port of Malta 190 vessels, of 28,612 tons.

AGRICULTURE.—There were in 1854, 45,182 acres in crop, and of uncultivated land 14,274 acres.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

POPULATION AND EDUCATION.—The population in 1854 was 241,493, of whom 49,563 were occupied in agriculture, 7,989 in manufacture, and 6,323 in commerce. There were 188 schools and 6,335 scholars.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—In 1854 the amount of revenue was 137,978*l*., and of expenditure 139,511*l*.

SHIPPING.—In 1854 there were entered 451,950 tons, and cleared 473,070 tons. The value of imports was 781,121*l*., and of exports 374,366*l*.

AGRICULTURE.—In 1854 there were 625,406 acres of land under crop, 97,536 in pasture, and 279,737 uncultivated. The produce was 59,817 bushels of wheat, 197,926 bushels of Indian corn, 5,437,600 lbs. currants, 122,185 barrels olive oil, 19,388 lbs. cotton, 142,837 lbs. flax, 136,527 barrels wine. There were 10,506 horses, 13,770 horned cattle, 100,789 sheep, and 68,089 goats.

No. XXXIII.—CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

*Further Papers relative to the State of the Kaffir Tribes.**[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty,
6th June, 1856.]*

GOVERNOR SIR GEORGE GREY reported that the Gaika tribes are anxious for employment on public works. They will form a good class of labourers, and may be converted into useful citizens. The warlike chiefs are turning their attention to agriculture. The natives of Kaffraria are ready to submit themselves to European medical treatment. In most cases of illness among Kaffirs, particularly in serious and chronic cases, the doctors profess to extract from the body of the patient substances said to be introduced through the agency of witchcraft or magic—such as wood, rags, cow-dung, and even reptiles. In Kaffraria Proper, the tribes exhibit anxiety to have industrial schools established among them, which in three or four years will be self-supporting; and they are willing to entrust their boys, who will be hereafter their principal chiefs, to our guardianship and care, in order that they may be instructed in Christianity and the arts of civilized life. It has become a necessity to do something to reclaim from barbarism the large masses of Fingoes who are settled within our frontier. Much tranquillity exists in the country. The following appears to be the system under which Kaffir law has hitherto been administered in British Kaffraria.

Complaints are brought before the chief of each tribe by any person of his tribe who deems himself aggrieved. Such complaints, whether relating to a question of disputed property or an alleged criminal offence, is heard by the chief and some of his councillors, who impose a fine on the party to whom they attribute guilt, generally so many head of cattle. The fine is levied by messengers from the chief's kraal; and being brought to the chief, the messengers are first paid for levying the fine. The chief then takes a certain portion for himself, of which he generally distributes some amongst the councillors who heard the case, and the remainder of the fine is handed over to the complaining party, who frequently again shares his portion of the fine amongst those of his friends who have assisted him in the prosecution of the case.

For such a system, it is proposed to substitute the following:—It is proposed that British Kaffraria should, for the purposes of the administration of justice, be divided into eleven districts, each district consisting of the location of the chiefs severally named in the schedule hereto annexed.

To each chief the number of councillors named in the schedule should be respectively assigned.

These chiefs and their several councillors to receive the rate of annual

salary named in the schedule, to be paid monthly, in instalments, as a payment for acting as administrators of justice.

In the case of those chiefs who now receive gratuities for former good conduct, the new salary to be in addition to such gratuity.

The several districts named should compose eight divisions, to each of which a resident magistrate should be appointed, with an interpreter where necessary.

It is proposed that for the future all such cases as are now brought before a chief and his councillors, should be brought before the same authorities, sitting jointly with the resident magistrate, who should act as assessor and adviser, endeavouring in all cases to have such a decision arrived at as was consistent with equity and good conscience.

Under such a system, it is intended that the fines levied under the authority of the chiefs should for the future be stated at a money value, which may be levied, if necessary, by distraining the cattle and goods of the offender, such fines to consist of two portions, fees of court, to be paid to the Crown as part of the general revenue of British Kaffraria, and the damages awarded to the party complaining; but no part of such fines to be paid to the chief or councillors as heretofore, it being understood that their paid salaries are in lieu of all such fines, unless, indeed, it may be thought advisable to allow a per-centage upon all fines collected to the councillors for their trouble in causing the same to be collected, in the manner that sheriff's officers are paid in this colony.

The magistrate could receive and account for all such fines and penalties in the usual manner, his interpreter acting as clerk.

In addition to the duties which would thus be thrown upon the magistrates, they would be expected to be constantly moving through their districts, acquiring a knowledge of the country and its inhabitants; to take an interest in their welfare, exerting themselves to the utmost to encourage industry, agriculture, and to promote civilization, to keep a daily journal of their proceedings, to be transmitted monthly to the Chief Commissioner, and to report to him fully and constantly upon the state of their several districts.

NO. XXXIV.—FURTHER CORRESPONDENCE RELATIVE TO THE RECENT EXPEDITION AGAINST THE MORIAH CHIEFS IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF SIERRA LEONE.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament, by command of Her Majesty.]

THESE papers contain Minutes of Council of the Governor of Sierra Leone, held May 25, 1855, regarding the Malageah expedition. The circumstances of the case were thus detailed by the Chief Justice:—

“Some five or six months ago the present Acting Governor sent an

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expedition, consisting of a large force, to Malageah in the Mellicourie River. That expedition, as well as the late one, was undertaken without consulting the Council. But whatever might have been the grounds for the first expedition, since then everything had been quiet in that river. Credit, he believed, had even been taken for that state of things, and he was not aware of any complaint having been made against the chief by the traders in that river. As to the last expedition, from the statement of the Acting Governor to the Board, it now appeared that the chief, on the occasion of the expedition in November last, gave an undertaking for about 200*l.*, payable in three months, as a compensation for losses sustained by the traders in the river; that a few days ago the Acting Governor sent his private secretary in the *Teazer* to demand payment; that the chief alleged he had not the amount, but offered to pay at once 300 dollars, apparently as a compromise; and that on this being reported to the Acting Governor, he directed the *Teazer* to return to the river with 150 troops, with orders to burn the town of the chief if the amount was not paid. The *Teazer* reached Malageah on the 22nd instant, and after landing the troops, and waiting about an hour, the town was set on fire, and a great part of it destroyed on that day. The next day the troops again landed to complete the destruction of the town, and then a fearful slaughter ensued, ending with a loss on our part of seventy-two men killed and missing, and eleven brought down wounded, out of 150 men embarked; the loss of the natives being estimated at several hundred persons killed, according to the statement of the Acting Governor. This result is indeed very disastrous, but he (the Chief Justice) apprehended it could in no wise be considered as resulting from the treaties with the Sherbro' chiefs to the south of the colony. It appeared to him that it was greatly to be regretted that the order to burn the town was given by the Acting Governor. He thought it would have been wiser to have stopped the stipend of the chief, or to have adopted some other course, instead of ordering the town to be burnt down. For even if this could have been effected without any loss of life, still it might have been considered that the natives, seeing their town and property thus destroyed, would become exasperated, and might retaliate by the destruction of the property of the British traders in those rivers, no time having been allowed them to remove their property before the expedition left the colony. He believed no disaster so great had ever before befallen this colony since it became a British settlement."

The British Government disclaimed in an unmistakeable manner the proceedings of the Acting Governor, Mr. Dougan. In a despatch of Sir William Molesworth, of the 22nd September, 1855, he said—

"By such conduct we shall never lay the foundations of civilization in Africa, and the native races there may justly accuse us of imitating their uncivilized example.

"With respect to the authority under which these expeditions were

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undertaken, I must observe that the Governor of a colony is entitled to order every thing to be done which is requisite for its defence against hostile acts from without. There may also be cases in which to commence offensive hostilities without delay may be indispensable, in order to prevent a dangerous hostile force from accumulating; but I believe that the greater the prudence and foresight of the Governor the less likely it is that such cases should arise. No such justifying cause can possibly be alleged in the present instance. The object was simply to compel the fulfilment of a treaty, or to destroy a town if that fulfilment was not enforced. No Governor is at liberty to engage in hostilities for such a purpose as this, without previously bringing the subject before the home authorities, and receiving their permission.

"Such would be the duty even of a Governor in full possession of authority; but one who is merely in the temporary administration of that office is more especially bound to act with caution and forbearance, and to leave the prosecution of measures of foreign policy to his principals, whenever he is not compelled to take more active steps, by the absolute wants of the community under his provisional charge."

After reviewing the circumstances of the expedition, the despatch closes as follows:—

"Without laying down any general rule as to absolute prohibitions of interference in such matters,—as I am bound to suppose that cases may arise, however rare and exceptional, in which national honour or interests may require such interference.—I would caution you to use the utmost circumspection in interposing the authority of the Colonial Government in the dealings between the natives and the European traders; above all, no measures involving the use of military or naval force for such a purpose should be taken, without the authority of the Home Government, which will carefully weigh the reasons adduced in favour of it."

In consequence of this despatch, the Council of Sierra Leone charged Mr. Dougan, "for having, when Acting Governor, on the 21st day of May, 1855, without authority, and on insufficient grounds, sent an expedition against the Moriah chiefs in the Mellicourie River beyond the colony, with orders to burn or destroy the town of Malageah, planned without foresight or judgment, disastrous in its termination, and disgraceful to the British power."

After a patient investigation of the charge, and mature consideration of the despatches referred to in defence, the Council were unanimous in opinion that Mr. Dougan had not cleared himself from blame, and that he should be suspended from his office of Queen's Advocate, and from his seat at the Council Board.

Mr. Dillet, who was sent with the expedition, was charged as follows:—

- 1st. For having participated in the seizure of Mohammadoo Turie, prime minister of the king of Malageah, whilst under the protection of a

flag of truce, on the 22nd May, 1855, such conduct being contrary to the laws of war, and tending to bring discredit on the British authority:

- 2nd. Retaining a letter from the king of Malageah, together with a list of goods sent by that chief in part payment of the demand made against him, paying no attention to the contents thereof, and proceeding to destroy the king's town, on the 22nd May, 1855:
- 3rd. Participating in the second attack on Malageah, on the 23rd May, 1855, after he was aware that the greater part of the town had been destroyed on the previous day, and severe punishment already inflicted.

After a patient investigation of those charges, and mature consideration of the defence offered, a majority of the Council acquitted Mr. Dillet of blame with respect to the first charge.

With respect to the second charge, a majority of the Council decided that Mr. Dillet had not cleared himself from blame.

With respect to the third charge, the Council were unanimous in opinion that Mr. Dillet was to blame.

The Board of Council then decided that Mr. Dillet should be suspended from his official duties, pending the decision of the Home Government; and the Clerk to the Board communicated by letter, to Mr. Dillet, on the 9th instant, such suspension.

The decision of the Council of Sierra Leone as respects the dismissal of Dougan was confirmed by the Right Hon. H. Labouchere, on the 22nd January, 1856. As regards Mr. Dillet, making allowances for his subordinate position, and being further of opinion that the result of the inquiry leaves no established imputation on his character, he came to the conclusion that the suspension from office and loss of salary which he will have undergone from the date of the decision of the Council to that of the arrival of the present despatch was sufficient, and that his dismissal and further suspension was not required for the interest of the public service.

A correspondence took place also with the War Department, on the conduct of Captain Fletcher, of the 1st West India Regiment, for his violation of the flag of truce, which met with great reprobation on the part of the Commander-in-Chief and Mr. Labouchere; and it was only from a belief that this unjustifiable act was to be attributed to a want of proper consideration on his part, and that he did not at the time perceive its true character, that the Field-Marshal refrained from visiting his conduct in a far more serious manner. The conduct of Lieutenant Nicholas, of H.M.S. *Teazel*, met also with strong reprobation from the Admiralty and Mr. Labouchere.

No. XXXV.—EAST INDIES.

Home Accounts of the East India Company.[*Presented pursuant to the Act 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 85.*]

THE receipts and disbursements of the Home Treasury of the East India Company from 1st May, 1855, to 30th April, 1856, were, receipts 3,936,877*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.* Balance in favour 1st May, 1855, 4,767,582*l.* 13*s.* 9*d.* Total, 10,543,990*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.*

The disbursements amounted to 7,112,436*l.* 15*s.* The balance in favour 30th April, 1856, 3,431,553*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.* Total 10,543,990*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.*

The estimate of the receipts from 1st May, 1856, to 30th April, 1857, are 7,691,120*l.*, and disbursements 8,254,105*l.*, showing an estimate balance on the 30th April, 1857, of 2,868,569*l.* The amount of debts of the Government of India on the 1st May, 1856, was 9,525,129*l.*; and of credits 6,000,549*l.*, showing an excess of debts of 3,524,580*l.* The debt is exclusive of the amount owing to proprietors for their capital stock, and the credits exclusive of the guarantee or security fund, formed under the provisions of the Act 3 & 4 Will. c. 85.

The several establishments of the East India Company in England comprised 526 persons, with salaries and allowances of 128,731*l.* In the year between 1st May, 1855, and 1st May, 1856, there were new establishments created, with salaries of 1,470*l.* per annum. There was an increase of salaries to the extent of 673*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*, and pensions granted for 4,100*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.* There were also several allowances, compensations, remunerations, and superannuations granted to officers and servants of the company, including 11,567*l.* 0*s.* 1*d.* to the widows' fund for the home establishment.

No. XXXVL—IMMIGRANTS AND LIBERATED AFRICANS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 21st July, 1856, for Return showing the number of Immigrants and liberated Africans admitted into each of the British West India Colonies and Mauritius, as well as the places from whence they were introduced for each year since 1847. (Mr. Moffat). (130).

To the West Indies there were admitted from 1848 to 1855 44,076 immigrants and liberated Africans, 17,962 of whom were from the East Indies, 9,006 from Madeira, 7,031 from St. Helena, and 6,543 from Sierra Leone, &c. Into the Mauritius there were introduced during the same period, from 1848 to the 30th June, 1855, 82,188, of whom 82,149 were from the East Indies, and 39 from Madagascar.

No. XXXIV.—POOR RELIEF.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 13th June, 1856, for

Return showing the total amount expended for the Relief of the Poor during the years ended at Lady-day 1854 and 1855 respectively, together with the cost per head on the Population in Fifty Unions and Parishes having the largest population in England and Wales. (Mr. Muntz.) (309.)

THE average cost per head, for the relief of the poor, on the population in 1854 was 4s. 3½d.; and in 1855, 4s. 11½d. The highest sum expended was in Liverpool, where, with a population of 258,236, the sum was, in 1854, 84,445l., and in 1855, 101,793l.; or 6s. 6½d. per head in 1854, and 7s. 10½d. in 1855. In Bristol, with a population of 65,716, the sum expended was, in 1854, 28,337l., and in 1855, 31,312l.; or 8s. 7d. per head in 1854, and 9s. 6½d. in 1855. The lowest cost was in Ashton-under-Lyne, where, with a population of 119,199, the sum expended in 1854 was 10,345l., or 1s. 8½d. per head; and in 1855, 11,441l., or 1s. 11d. per head. These sums consist of in-maintenance, out-relief workhouse repaid, and interest thereon, and other expenses of, or immediately connected with relief.

No. XXXV.—GENERAL BOARD OF HEALTH.

Reports from the Metropolis Water Supply.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

Report on the chemical quality of the supply of Water to the Metropolis, by A. W. Hofman, LL.D., Professor of Chemistry in the Metropolitan School of Science, and Chemist to the Museum of Practical Geology, &c., and Lindsey Blyth, Esq., Lecturer on Natural Philosophy at St. Mary's Hospital.

THE directions given by the President of the General Board of Health, the Right Hon. William Cowper, M.P., were, that the analysis should be directed to ascertain the degree of hardness, permanent and temporary, of the water, and the total admixture of matter foreign to its chemical composition, distinguishing the suspended from the dissolved, the mineral from the organic, and among the latter to specify as far as practicable those which are putrefiable. On the subject of the examination of organic matter the report states as follows:—

“Very little is known of the nature of the ill-defined substances which constitute the organic matter generally found in water. Berzelius distin-

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guishes two substances, crenic and apocrenic acids, which slightly differ in their chemical deportment; but these two bodies are as yet scarcely chemically examined, and much doubt still hangs over their individuality, and even over their existence. The organic matter in water has been divided into *nitrogenous* and *non-nitrogenous* matter; but all we know is, that certain varieties of the organic matter found in water contain nitrogen, which is readily shown by treating them with hydrate of potash, when abundance of ammonia is evolved.

“The opinions of chemists are divided as to the manner in which organic matter in water is capable, under certain conditions, of producing a deleterious effect upon the animal economy. But it is now generally admitted, that the substances which constitute the organic matter of water act injuriously by no means in consequence of being poisonous themselves, but by undergoing those great processes of transformation, called decay and putrefaction, to which all vegetable and animal matter is subject, when no longer under the control of vitality, either in plants or animals. These putrefactive processes either give rise to the formation of poisonous bodies, or they act simply as ferments, generating similar processes of decomposition in the substances composing the animal organism. Now, with special reference to the last mode of action, it is well established by general experience that *nitrogenous* substances are infinitely more liable to undergo putrefaction than organic bodies from which nitrogen is absent. And hence the very general and correct opinion that the deleterious character of organic matter in water is proportionate to the amount of *nitrogen* which it contains. Could this nitrogen be estimated with any degree of accuracy, such an estimate would certainly afford the most satisfactory element in the examination of the organic matter. Unfortunately this estimate is attended with very considerable difficulties. The nitrogen of the organic matter which has undergone putrefaction, and has therefore ceased to be deleterious, remains in the water, partly as ammonia, partly as nitric acid. It would, therefore, by no means be sufficient to evaporate the water, and to determine the amount of nitrogen in the residue. It would be absolutely necessary to estimate also the nitrogen present in the form of nitric acid and of ammonia, and only after the deduction of their joint amount from the total amount, numbers would be obtained which, representing the quantity of still putrescible nitrogenous substances, would afford, within certain limits, the necessary data for a comparison of the organic matter present in different waters.”

After stating the mode of collecting the different samples submitted to analysis, the following results were given, adding, for the sake of comparison, the results obtained in 1851 by the Government Commission, consisting of Professors Graham, Miller, and Hofman:—

Comparison of the average Results obtained in the Analysis of 1856 with those of the Analysis made in 1851.

Description of Water.	Date of Taking.	Hardness.			Solid Constituents, Grains per Gallon.		
		Total.	Per- manent.	Tem- porary.	Total solid Residue.	Organic Matter.	Inorganic Matter.
Grand Junction Water Company	1851	14.00	21.72	3.07	18.65
	1856	14.87	7.92	6.95	22.59	1.38	21.21
West Middlesex Water Company	1851	14.60	22.67	2.75	19.92
	1856	14.28	8.12	6.16	21.03	0.96	20.07
Chelsea Water Company	1851	14.44	21.28	2.38	18.90
	1856	13.80	8.63	5.17	22.79	1.42	21.37
Southwark and Vauxhall Water Company	1851	13.00	21.08	1.51	19.57
	1856	13.59	8.22	5.37	21.19	1.37	19.82
Lambeth Water Company	1851	14.16	20.40	2.59	17.81
	1856	11.98	7.82	4.16	19.84	1.33	18.51
New River Water Company	1851	14.9	19.50	2.79	16.71
	1856	13.4	7.8	5.6	21.78	0.968	20.812
East London Water Company	1851	15.00	23.51	4.12	19.39
	1856	13.98	7.53	6.45	22.05	1.09	20.96
Kent Water Company	1851	16.00	29.71	2.61	27.10
	1856	12.03	10.1	1.93	26.10	1.37	24.73
Hampstead Water Company	1851	9.8	35.41	1.84	33.57
	1856	7.43	7.41	0.02	29.19	1.45	27.74

This table shows that the hardness of the waters in 1856, was, with one exception, somewhat less than in 1851; the diminution, however, with one or two exceptions, is only trifling. The total amount of solid matter in the two years likewise exhibits but unimportant fluctuations.

A very considerable diminution, however, is observed in the amount of organic matter.

In fact, in 1856, the waters supplied to the metropolis contained not more than one-half of the organic matter which was present in the year 1851.

ENGINEERING.

The Superintending Inspectors of the Board, Messrs. Henry Austin, Chief, and William Ranger and Alfred L. Dickens, Superintending Inspectors, reported as follows:—

Of the ten metropolitan water companies five take their supplies from the River Thames, namely:—The Chelsea Company, the Grand Junction Company, the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, the Lambeth Company, the West Middlesex Company.

The other five companies have the following sources of supply:—

The New River Company's sources remain unaltered. The supply is obtained partly from certain wells and springs in various places, but chiefly from the river Lea, near Hertford.

The East London Company derive their water wholly from the river

Lea, but it is now taken from a point considerably higher up the river than formerly.

The Kent Company have for their source the river Ravensbourne, the point from which the supply is drawn being unaltered.

The Hampstead Company, from the first, obtained their small supply from certain ponds and wells, but have more recently been assisted by supplies from the New River and the West Middlesex Companies.

The Plumstead, Woolwich, and Charlton Consumers' Pure Water Company derive their supply from a well and boring sunk into the chalk, above the town of Woolwich.

The Lambeth Company, in deference to the great complaints which were made of the foul state of the water supplied by them, anticipated the general act of 1852, and obtained powers in 1847 for the alteration of the source of their supply.

The Chelsea Company were allowed by the Act of 1852 a longer period of time than the other companies, namely, until the 31st August 1856, for the completion of the arrangements necessary for obtaining their supply from above the tidal influence; but such rapid progress has been made with the works as to allow of the supply being furnished from the new source before the expiration of the time allowed by the act. The Company have selected a site for their works, called "Seething Wells," adjoining the works of the Lambeth Company at Thames Ditton.

The Grand Junction, the Southwark and Vauxhall, and the West Middlesex Companies, have established their new works on three contiguous plots of land, on the banks of the river Thames, at Hampton, and have erected buildings of similar design, which combine to produce an important effect. The mains of these three companies from Hampton to their several establishments in London run in parallel direction, as shown on the plan, as far as Twickenham, and at the point of divergence from each other, means of communication between the three have been formed for mutual aid in case of accident or repair.

RESERVOIRS.

The total capacity of the reservoirs and filter beds, five in number, of the works of the Grand Junction Water Company, in 1850, was 17,900,000 gallons; that of the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, 43,000,000 gallons; that of the Lambeth waterworks, 15,900,000 gallons; that of the West Middlesex comprised an area of about 16 acres; the Chelsea, of $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres; the New River Company, of 18 acres 2 roods; the London Water Company, 35,000,000 gallons; the Kent Water Company, 8,710,754 gallons; the Hampstead, 35 acres; the Plumstead, Woolwich, and Charlton Consumers' Pure Water Company, 8,549 superficial feet.

The following is a concise view of the main features of the entire works of the metropolis water supply:—

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TABLE OF THE ENTIRE WORKS OF THE METROPOLIS WATER SUPPLY.

List of Metropolis Water Companies.	Sources of Supply.	No. of Houses supplied.	Gross Quantity supplied per day.	Aggregate nominal Steam Power.	Length of Mains and Branches.	Area of subdividing Reservoirs.	Area of Filter Beds.	Area of open Reservoirs for filtered Water.	Area of covered Reservoirs for filtered Water.	Cost of Works, as per former Return.	Cost of Altera- tions and of New Works.
			Gallons.	Horses.	Miles. 400 to 500 say 450	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	£	£
New River	River Lea, Chalk Springs, &c.	95,083	25,000,000	1,442		66·00	9·00	None.	3·76	1,431,717	566,084
East London	River Lea	70,000	16,000,000	840	331	None.	12·00	None.	2·50	745,781	250,000
Southwark and Vauxhall	River Thames, at Hampton	41,529	10,331,122	1,065	432	7·88	4·40	None.	None.	435,247	214,010
Lambeth	River Thames, at Thames Ditton	28,541	6,109,000	680	206	None.	0·73	1·25	3·00	307,352	301,633
West Middlesex	River Thames, at Hampton	25,732	6,895,368	480	178	16·00	4·50	None.	1·75	648,560	157,399
Chelsea	River Thames, at Seething Wells	25,080	5,323,000	700	198½	3·50	2·00	None.	2·50	455,712	472,324
Grand Junction	River Thames, at Hampton	17,231	6,714,292	1,440	117	7·69	5·17	None.	1·07	522,295	311,128
Kent	River Ravensbourne	16,077	3,500,000	500	124	5·20	2·65	1·55	None.	202,104	27,022
Hampstead	Ponds and Chalk Well	6,348	603,060	72	33½	35·00	0·14	None.	None.	81,231	33,224
Plumstead and Woolwich	Chalk Well	3,000	550,000	35	16	0·19	None.	None.	0·32	None.	50,000
	Totals	328,561	81,025,842	7,254	2,086	141·46	40·59	2·80	14·90	4,819,999	2,282,824

According to the return furnished by the several water companies in 1850, it appeared that 270,581 houses were then supplied with water, the gross daily quantity delivered having been 44,383,332 gallons. It will be observed from the preceding table that the supply of water to the metropolis has now reached the enormous quantity of upwards of 81 million gallons per day, *it having been nearly doubled in the short space of six years.* It is furnished to 328,561 of the 340,000 houses which now form the aggregate within the Registrar General's district. Thus, the average daily supply of water for all purposes, which in 1850 was 164 gallons per house, is now, in 1856, 246 gallons per house. The total nominal engine power employed and in reserve is equal to 7,324 horses. The mains and branch pipes for bringing the water from the several sources, and distributing it in the districts, exclusive of the private service pipes, form a total length of 2,086 miles. The filter beds cover an area of upwards of 40 acres. Before the passing of the Metropolis Water Act of 1852, considerably more than half the supply was not filtered: subsiding reservoirs were in such case the only means of clearing the water of impurities in suspension; these are now for the most part employed as well as the filter beds, the total area of subsiding reservoirs in use being upwards of 141 acres in extent. The filtered water is stored in fourteen covered reservoirs, comprising an area of nearly 15 acres, and in four uncovered reservoirs, of not quite 3 acres, which are beyond five miles distance from St. Paul's. The cost of the new works executed under the Metropolis Water Act, 1852, and the recent acts of the several companies, has amounted to 2,282,824*l.*, making with the former expenditure, as shown by the returns of 1850, the cost of the entire water works of the metropolis *upwards of seven millions sterling.* Even this amount, however, will fall short of the total expenditure; for the intermediate outlays between the former returns and the passing of the new acts, and the cost of many works in hand, but not yet complete, are not included in this sum.

The results of the investigations into the present state of the metropolitan water supply are as follows:—

1st. That the requirements set forth in the commencement of the Report, comprising the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 14th, and 17th clauses of the Metropolis Water Act, 1852, have, in all essential respects, been fully and satisfactorily complied with by the several companies (the provisions for constant supply not coming into operation until the 1st July, 1857). The new works have not, in fact, been limited to what a bare compliance with those provisions would have fulfilled. Measures have been adopted for the general improvement of the supplies, which evince a proper anxiety on the part of the companies in the discharge of the duties of their position towards the public.

2nd. That having regard to the serious state of contamination to which many of the rivers and streams of the country are being reduced by the drainage operations carried out in the neighbouring towns, and by the

direct discharge of the sewage without any means adopted for the prevention of the pollution of the waters,—a condition which is evidenced to the inhabitants of the metropolis by the suddenly increased pollution of the Thames itself at the points whence their water supply has but recently been drawn,—we desire to recommend that early attention be directed to the towns draining into the Thames and its tributaries, and into the Lea and Ravensbourne, above the present sources of supply, so that measures may be adopted with regard to the drainage of those places which will permanently preserve the supply of water to the metropolis in its utmost practicable state of purity.

No. XXXVI.—LOAN FUND BOARD OF IRELAND.

Fifteenth Annual Report of the Commissioners of the Loan Fund Board of Ireland, pursuant to the Act 6 & 7 Vict. c. 91.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE number of loan funds in existence in 1855, on Board's register, was 113; compared with the number of 1854, there was a decrease on the past year of two.

The circulation of loan funds throughout the country, connected with the Board in 1855, amounted to 883,321*l.*; it exceeded that of 1854 by 13,297*l.*, and that of any previous year since 1846. In the continuous steady increase of the circulation of loan funds, since the disastrous period of the famine, there is evidence at once of increased activity in the operations of loan funds and in industrial pursuits generally throughout the country.

The capital of loan funds actually working in 1855 was 213,070*l.* The capital to be accounted for by managers in that year amounted to 217,272*l.* The working capital of 1855 was less than that of 1854, by the sum of 1,665*l.*; and yet, with the reduction of capital, the operation of loan funds was more active in the past year than in 1854. The working of the system in 1855 was attended with less loss, arising either from failure of societies or frauds committed by clerks, than in any past year since 1845.

The number of loans made in 1855 was 208,655; it fell short of the number made in 1854 by 262; the amount of loans, however, averaged higher in the former year.

The number of notes sold by the Board at 1*d.* each, in 1855, was 214,400; and exceeded the number sold in 1854 by 2,200. The produce of the sale of notes in 1855 was 893*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, showing an increase over the same amount in 1854 of 9*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* The number of debentures sold at 1*s.* each, in 1855, was 420, the produce of the sale of which was 21*l.* There was a decrease in the number sold in 1855, as compared with 1854, of 249, and in the produce of the sale of 1855 of 12*l.* 9*s.*

The gross profits derived by local societies from discounts, fines, sale of application papers and cards, in 1855, was 26,120*l.*; they exceeded the amount derived from the same sources in 1854 by 704*l.*

The amount of fines (one of the above-named items) in 1855 was 4,838*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.*; there was an increase in the past year on this item over that of 1854 of 748*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.*; the fact of so large an increase in the charge to borrowers, for the accommodation afforded them, requires to be attended to.

The amount of surplus profits applicable in 1855 to "charitable or useful local purposes" was 1,692*l.* 19*s.* 8*d.*; in this item there is an increase in the past year over that of 1854 of 287*l.* 9*s.* 8*d.*

The Board's income in 1855, derived from ordinary sources of revenue, was 1,030*l.* 6*s.* 1*d.*

The Board's expenditure in 1855 was 990*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*; it exceeded that of 1854 by 104*l.* 6*s.* 7*d.*

The report is signed by Messrs. George H. Lindsay, chairman; Walter Sweetman, Thomas Hutton, John Lentaigue, H. U. Tighe, James John Bagot, J. G. Porter. Countersigned by R. R. Madden, Secretary.

No. XXXVII.—LONDON CORPORATION.

Annual Accounts of the Chamberlain of the City of London relating to Duties and Payments, Surpluses, Blackfriars Bridge, Bridge House Estates, Navigation of the River Thames, Mooring Chains in the River Thames, Police, Ward Expenses, Sewers, Sale of Coals, Duty on Coals, Clerkenwell Improvement Commission (pursuant to Act.)

THE receipts by the Chamberlain of the City during the year ending 5th January, 1856, were 153,685*l.* 15*s.* 11*d.*, of which 135,654*l.* 12*s.* was the produce of coal duties, and the amount paid 21,923*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* The lighting, watching, and cleansing Blackfriars Bridge, cost 1,213*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* For the Bridge House Estate, 21,550*l.* was paid towards the expenses of rebuilding London Bridge, and 7,655*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* transfer of account for lighting, and Blackfriars Bridge, and payment of interest. For the improvement of the Thames Navigation there were received 41,528*l.* 19*s.* 2½*d.*, and expended 26,212*l.* 9*s.* 8½*d.*, showing a balance of 15,316*l.* 9*s.* 6¼*d.* The cost and charges of maintaining mooring chains in the River Thames showed an expenditure of 33,395*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.* The maintenance of the Police cost 45,326*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* The Police Superannuation Fund, 2,289*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.* The Ward Expenses, 6,363*l.* 15*s.* 3½*d.* The Sewers' account, 112,205*l.* 10*s.* 7½*d.* in the consolidated account, and 17,340*l.* 7*s.* 10*d.* Sewers' account. The market for the sale of coals, &c. cost 10,125*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.* Charges on drawbacks, &c. from the duty of coals, 16,922*l.* 2*s.* 4*d.*; and Clerkenwell Improvement, 44,616*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*

No. XXIX.—HIGHWAYS.

An Abstract of the general Statements of the Receipts and Expenditure on account of the Highways of the several Parishes, Townships, &c. in England and Wales, for the year ending 25th March, 1854. Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.

THE Returns comprised accounts from 40 counties in England and 12 counties in Wales. The balance in hand on the 25th March, 1853, was 209,698*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.*, and the amount over-spent, 83,207*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* The total receipts for the year ending 25th March, 1854, was, 2,080,049*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*; comprising rates or assessments, 1,826,440*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*; team labour performed in lieu of rates, 37,776*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*; other works performed in lieu of rates, 5,711*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* From turnpike trusts, 13,183*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, and other receipts, 196,937*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.* The total expenditure was, 2,088,954*l.* 0*s.* 3*d.*, which included manual labour, 708,624*l.* 12*s.* 2*d.*; team labour, 273,284*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*; materials, 508,204*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.*; tradesmen's bills, 156,821*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; salaries, 90,815*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*; team labour performed in lieu of rates, 37,776*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*; others works performed in lieu of rates, 5,711*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; to turnpike trusts, 23,238*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.*; other payments, 284,475*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* The balance on the 25th March, 1854, was, in hand, 204,609*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*; over-spent, 87,023*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.*

No. XXX.—HARBOURS, &c.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 29th February, 1856, for Report of the Board of Trade, dated August, 1856, upon the Private Bills for Harbours, Docks, Navigations, &c. (Mr. Strutt.) (93—1.)

THIS return describes the various bills which were presented to the House, and gives the particulars of the Birkenhead Docks Bills since passed.

In 1855, six bills, relating to the Port of Liverpool and its Docks, were introduced into Parliament, but the Committee, to whom they were referred, submitted the matter to the Board of Trade for their report, upon which the Board submitted the following scheme for the purchase and transfer of the Docks:—

“ 1. Confirm the purchase made by the Liverpool Corporation.

“ 2. Place the Docks at once under the management of the Liverpool Dock Trustees.

“ 3. Complete the Works at present authorised under the respective Acts relating to the Birkenhead Docks within one year (or other limited period) from the end of next Session, unless otherwise provided by Parliament, the Liverpool Corporation raising the necessary funds upon Corporation bonds, each of such bonds to bear a distinct notice of the Act under the authority of which it is issued.

“ 4. Provide for equality of rates in the Birkenhead and Liverpool Docks.

“ 5. Keep a separate account of the rates in the Birkenhead Docks, and pay the amount, after deducting working expenses, to the Liverpool

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Corporation, until provision is made for paying the interest of the bonds given by the Corporation in satisfaction of the purchase-money of the Docks.

"6. Declare specifically that neither the Act nor the bonds issued under its authority shall prevent Parliament dealing with the Town Dues; provided that in any such dealing provision be made for keeping down so much of the interest thereafter accruing on the Corporation bonds in question, as the net income of the Docks shall be insufficient to pay, and for otherwise indemnifying the Corporation against any borough rate which they may be obliged to raise, or against any loss which their Borough Fund, exclusive of the Town Dues, may suffer in consequence of the purchase of the Birkenhead Docks.

"7. So soon as provision has been made for relieving the Liverpool Corporation from the principal and interest of the debt incurred in the purchase, and for indemnifying them against loss, the Docks to be transferred to the Dock Trustees.

"The following provisions were also suggested to be introduced into the Bill promoted by the Liverpool Dock Trustees.

"1. The reconstitution of the Dock Trustees in such a manner as to represent not only Liverpool and Birkenhead, but all parties concerned in the trade of the Mersey.

"2. The revision of the limits of the Harbour.

"3. The better management and conservancy of the Harbour.

"4. The transfer of the Birkenhead Docks to the new body of Trustees, to be managed by them jointly with the Liverpool Docks as one undertaking, such transfer to be subject to the provision above mentioned for paying the income from the Birkenhead Docks to the Liverpool Corporation, until they are indemnified from loss in consequence of their proposed purchase.

"5. The completion, by the new Trustees, of so much of the Birkenhead Docks as shall be then unfinished, either according to the present plans, or according to such improved plans as shall be approved by Parliament."

The Committee came to the following conclusions:—They refused to the Liverpool Dock Trustees power to extend their Docks on the northern side of the Mersey, as proposed, and confined the new powers of borrowing, for which they sought, to the sum of 850,000*l.* instead of extending it to 3,500,000*l.*, as proposed. And they confirmed the arrangements for the purchase of the Birkenhead Docks, but inserted some new clauses in the Bill which passed as the Birkenhead Dock Act, 1855.

The return gives also particulars of Bills for Bournemouth Improvement; Broadstairs Harbour and Pier; Cork Bridges, Waterworks, &c.; Dundee Harbour; Ely Tidal Harbour; Gravesend Improvement; London Dock Company; North Shields and Tynemouth Dock; Kirkwall Harbour; Isle of Wight Steam Bridge and approaches; Perth Burgh and Harbour; Stotfield and Lossiemouth Harbour Improvements; and Thames Haven Dock and Railway Bills.

No. XXXI.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) in the Two Months ended 31st August and 30th September, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.					CLEARED OUTWARDS.				
Countries.	August.		September.		Countries.	August.		September.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	1,905	495,833	1,770	514,907	United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	2,496	604,978	2,211	541,774
Russia . . .	25	5,741	17	3,072	Russia . . .	17	4,012	19	3,475
Sweden . . .	75	12,638	78	14,080	Sweden . . .	88	14,506	100	15,162
Norway . . .	346	69,394	231	46,870	Norway . . .	220	34,367	201	32,659
Denmark . . .	292	27,611	179	16,473	Denmark . . .	371	32,545	356	33,399
Prussia . . .	210	48,381	126	30,038	Prussia . . .	169	35,196	227	50,606
Other German States . . .	267	39,501	153	28,807	Other German States . . .	434	58,155	357	49,810
Holland . . .	162	20,898	117	17,172	Holland . . .	168	23,411	199	27,489
Belgium . . .	21	4,548	15	3,905	Belgium . . .	37	9,241	27	5,480
France . . .	68	4,421	53	3,281	France . . .	462	45,125	357	37,636
Spain . . .	22	4,202	20	4,894	Spain . . .	20	3,183	29	6,565
Portugal . . .	6	930	10	1,732	Portugal . . .	7	1,572	6	1,015
Italian States . . .	31	8,461	14	4,494	Italian States . . .	35	10,384	36	10,835
Other European States . . .	9	2,515	3	875	Other European States . . .	12	3,467	9	2,074
United States of America . . .	139	118,720	138	121,717	United States of America . . .	158	141,507	177	159,962
Other States in America, Africa or Asia . . .	1	200	1	387	Other States in America, Africa or Asia . . .	3	994	2	1,189
Total . . .	3,579	863,994	2,918	812,704	Total . . .	4,697	1,022,643	4,313	979,130

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various countries, during the Two Months ended 31st August and 30th September, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.

Countries.	August.		September.		Countries.	August.		September.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British Possessions, in					Brought forward	3,035	650,497	2,512	613,321
North America . . .	283	135,645	415	189,848	Italian States . . .	106	20,067	55	12,399
East Indies . . .	42	32,961	52	38,431	Turkish Dominions . . .	54	15,901	40	14,446
Australia . . .	11	7,002	7	4,965	Wallachia and Moldavia . . .	66	10,511	26	3,873
All other Parts . . .	209	37,430	220	42,005	Other European States . . .	20	3,346	11	3,686
Russia . . .	851	161,427	517	105,332	Egypt . . .	25	8,752	16	7,031
Sweden . . .	225	48,204	124	22,545	United States . . .	119	102,871	121	110,422
Norway . . .	179	25,616	138	21,771	Mexico, Foreign West Indies, & Central America . . .	46	16,039	46	16,206
Denmark . . .	166	20,457	97	16,126	Brazil . . .	17	5,729	18	5,906
Prussia . . .	275	43,438	198	32,550	Other States in America, Africa and Asia . . .	91	30,281	73	25,414
Other German States . . .	162	36,739	129	35,595					
Holland . . .	192	36,814	185	39,032					
Belgium . . .	74	15,606	71	14,630					
France . . .	271	34,727	253	34,514					
Spain . . .	57	8,116	69	9,773					
Portugal . . .	38	6,315	37	6,204					
Carried forward	3,035	650,497	2,512	613,321	Total . . .	3,579	863,994	2,918	812,704

Note.—"Transports" with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return.

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Countries.	August.		September.		Countries.	August.		September.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British Possessions, in					Brought forward	4,124	763,103	3,747	695,943
North America	149	64,879	71	32,669	Italian States .	147	35,781	122	30,662
East Indies .	71	56,666	65	48,457	Turkish Dominions .	35	11,433	25	8,998
Australia .	45	39,443	44	37,128	Wallachia and Moldavia .	4	688	5	817
All other Parts	248	57,474	221	48,210	Other European States .	9	2,419	10	2,303
Russia .	431	88,135	281	65,818	Egypt .	34	11,235	41	14,793
Sweden .	126	20,942	133	21,066	United States .	144	134,753	180	162,216
Norway .	116	14,880	95	13,413	Mexico, Foreign West Indies, & Central America	52	17,954	57	22,141
Denmark .	533	58,789	542	64,289	Brazil .	48	16,009	38	16,629
Prussia .	278	47,563	395	69,457	Other States in America, Africa and Asia .	100	29,268	88	24,628
Other German States .	536	85,159	451	74,797	Total .	4,697	1,022,643	4,313	979,130
Holland .	300	53,895	321	56,220					
Belgium .	95	19,129	91	17,891					
France .	934	110,887	794	102,633					
Spain .	165	26,976	168	30,149					
Portugal .	97	18,286	75	13,746					
Carried forward	4,124	763,103	3,747	695,943					

Note.—“Transports” with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return.

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing British and Foreign (employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, and otherwise), Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes at Ports in the United Kingdom, during the Two Months ended 31st August and 30th September, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.					CLEARED OUTWARDS.				
Vessels.	August.		September.		Vessels.	August.		September.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland :					Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland :				
British .	933	168,823	883	175,986	British .	1,922	242,371	2,049	260,225
Foreign .	9	1,566	8	1,529	Foreign .	1	79	4	263
Other Coasting Vessels :					Other Coasting Vessels :				
British .	10,141	874,057	10,000	901,350	British .	10,614	902,772	10,674	919,029
Foreign .	28	4,792	23	3,910	Foreign .	16	2,954	9	1,918
Total { British	11,074	1,042,880	10,883	1,077,336	Total { British	12,536	1,145,143	12,723	1,179,254
Foreign	37	6,358	31	5,439	Foreign	17	3,033	13	2,181
Total .	11,111	1,049,238	10,914	1,082,775	Total .	12,553	1,148,176	12,736	1,181,435

No. XXXV.—COURT OF CHANCERY (IRELAND) BILLS.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the Court of Chancery (Ireland) Bills. The Court of Chancery (Ireland) Jurisdiction Bill. The Court of Chancery (Ireland) Procedure Bill. The Court of Chancery (Ireland) Receivers Bill. The Court of Chancery (Ireland) Appeals Bill, and the Court of Chancery (Ireland) Sales of Estates Bill.

THE Committee consisted of Mr. Solicitor-General for Ireland, Sir James Graham, Mr. Edward Ellice, Mr. Henley, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Keogh, Viscount Monck, Mr. Napier, Mr. Macartney, Mr. Henry Herbert, Mr. Seymour Fitzgerald, Mr. Whiteside, Mr. De Vere, Sir Erskine Perry, Mr. Kirk, Sir Fitzroy Kelly, and Mr. Solicitor-General.

Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland reported from the Select Committee as follows:—

That it is the opinion of this Committee:—

1. That the system of conferring an indefeasible title on judicial sales of encumbered estates in Ireland should be perpetuated.

2. That the benefits flowing from that system should be extended to unencumbered estates.

3. That a tribunal ought to exist in Ireland, having power to confer an indefeasible title on the sale of estates, the titles to which, being submitted to a judicial investigation, should be found satisfactory.

4. That it is essential that the constitution of the Court of Chancery in Ireland should be altered, and its procedure and practice reformed.

5. That the Masters in Ordinary should have original jurisdiction and all the powers of a Court of Equity over all administration suits, foreclosure suits, partnership accounts, and such other matters, under the 15th section of Sir John Romilly's Act, as petitioners should wish to set down, and to be heard by any Master in Ordinary.

6. That the Lord Chancellor, Master of the Rolls, and, subject to such rules as the Chancellor shall make, the Masters in Ordinary, should have power to obtain the assistance of valuers, surveyors, accountants, merchants, engineers, actuaries, or other scientific persons, and enable such Court or Judge to determine any matter at issue in any cause or proceeding, and to act upon the certificate of such persons.

7. That, subject to the above rules, every Equity Judge should dispose of the whole suit before him, without any reference.

8. That the practice of receiving evidence *vivâ voce* in the Court of Chancery before the Judge who has to decide the cause is a sound one, and that it is desirable that increased facilities should be afforded for a more extensive application of the system.

9. That a Court of Appeal in Chancery should be constituted, to consist of the Lord Chancellor and an additional Judge to be Lord Justice of the Court of Appeal, with power to the Court to call in the aid of a judge of one of the superior Courts of Common Law.

10. That all appeals from orders or decrees of the Master of the Rolls, and all rehearings of decisions of the Lord Chancellor, should be determined by the Court of Appeal.

11. That the Lord Chancellor, Master of the Rolls, and Judge of the Court of Appeal, or two of them, should be armed with extensive powers to reform and regulate the practice and procedure of the Court, so as to attain economy, simplicity, and expedition, and should be bound to make general orders accordingly.

12. That the law and practice of the Court of Chancery in Ireland, in relation to the appointment of Receivers over real estate, requires to be further amended.

13. That the appointment of Receivers should be discouraged.

14. That, in order to lessen the necessity for the appointment of Receivers, in suits for the sale of land, the sale should take place at the earliest practicable stage of the suit.

15. That the Court should be empowered to refuse the appointment of a Receiver, unless it should be made appear to the Court that the interests and protection of the parties required it.

16. That the Court should be also empowered to refuse a Receiver, where it appeared that the appointment of a Receiver would not be productive of substantial benefit to the parties.

17. That the Act 11 & 12 Geo. III., c. 10 (Irish), by which Courts of Equity in Ireland are authorised to appoint Receivers for the purpose of discharging arrears or interest on mortgages, should be repealed.

18. That the several Acts 5 & 6 Will. IV., c. 55; 3 & 4 Vict., c. 105; 7 & 8 Vict., c. 90; 12 & 13 Vict., c. 95; 13 & 14 Vict., c. 29, which regulate the right of a judgment creditor in Ireland, against the real estate of his debtor, require to be reconsidered.

19. That this Committee, being of opinion that the system of conferring an indefeasible title on judicial sales of encumbered estates should be continued without intermission, recommends that the Encumbered Estates Court should be continued for a period not exceeding one year.

20. That in lieu of the present appeal from the Encumbered Estates Court to the Privy Council, all future appeals should be to the Court of Appeal in Chancery.

21. That such appeals should be of right.

22. That the place for holding the sittings of the Court should with all convenient speed be changed from its present locality to the Four Courts.

Mr. Attorney-General for Ireland further reported from the said Select Committee—

That having regard to the said resolutions, the Committee had not considered it expedient to go through the said Bills, which they had directed him to report to the House.

24th June, 1856.

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The witnesses examined were, Mr. Charles James Hargreaves, P.C.; the Master of the Rolls; the Master of the Rolls for Ireland; Messrs. William Williams, solicitor, London; Mountfort Longfield, LL.D.; Jeremiah John Murphy, Master in Chancery, Ireland; William Gibson, solicitor, Ireland; Richard King, assistant-clerk in the office of Master of the Court of Chancery, Ireland; Samuel Frederick Adair, solicitor, Dublin; Acheson Lyle, Master of the Court of Chancery, Ireland; Right Hon. Abraham Brewster; and Mr. Richard Malins, M.P.

From the evidence, it appears that the Encumbered Estates Court in Ireland, from the commencement of business in November 1849, to the end of February 1856, was the instrument of effecting purchases of the amount of 16½ millions, in round numbers 17 millions, of which 14 millions were paid out, or credited to purchasers. There was a rental of about 400,000*l.* a year remaining in court unsold, but a great deal of that is property which never will be brought to sale. The operation of the court has been very satisfactory, and the causes of its success were attributed to the simplicity of the Act of Parliament and of the rules framed in pursuance of that Act, each of which are intelligible to practitioners—to the exemption from fees—to the certainty of possessing the land bought, free from legal questions as to the validity of the title—to the conciseness and simplicity of the title deeds, and the ascertainment thereby of the tenancies—to the power of the purchaser to calculate the expense of his purchase without, as in ordinary cases, knowing that he would have to pay for the investigation of a title, a sum, even the probable amount of which he could not calculate on—to the facility afforded to the public of inspecting the records of the court, and the proceedings being free of expense—to the facility of communicating with the judge conversant with the title and the details of the case—to the intelligence, activity, and courtesy of the judges and the officers in general of the court.

Upon the expediency of assimilating the laws of England and Ireland, the Master of the Rolls, the Right Hon. A. Brewster, and Mr. Murphy, were alike decided in their statements. The practice, with regard to the sale of estates, was also recommended to be assimilated.

No. XXXVL—JUSTICES OF THE PEACE.

Return to an Address of the House of Lords, dated 19th February, 1856, for Return of all persons who have qualified to act as Justices of the Peace in the several Counties in England and Wales; and also Return of the Number of Petty Sessional Divisions in each County, and the number of Magistrates usually acting therein. (288 L.)

THESE returns give the names of the justices of the peace in all the counties in England and Wales for the years 1852, 1853, and 1854.

No. XXXVII.—STIPENDIARY MAGISTRATES.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 4th Mdrch, 1856, for A Return of the names and Salaries of all Stipendiary Magistrates in England and Wales, together with the Number of Cases brought, in the course of the year 1855, under the cognisance of each such Magistrate, and the Population of the District over which he exercises jurisdiction (exclusive of the Metropolitan Police District). (Viscount Goderich.) (371.)

Place.	Population.	No. of Cases.	Salary, per annum.
Brighton	76,696	730	£800
Kingston-upon-Hull	100,000	7,420	800
Liverpool	374,301	24,907	1,000
Manchester, City of	334,393	18,095	1,000
Merthyr Tydvill	64,796	2,403	600
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	100,000	5,332	600
Salford, Borough of	181,160	8,307	840
Stafford	125,000	7,228	800
Wolverhampton	249,292	4,587	1,000
Worcester	26,000	457	300

No. XXXVIII.—INSOLVENT DEBTORS' AND BANKRUPTCY COURTS (IRELAND.)

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 30th April, 1856, for Return of the Name, Age, Date of Appointment, Salaries, and other emoluments of all Officers of the Insolvent Debtors' and Bankruptcy Courts in Ireland. (Mr. Macartney.) (240.)

THESE returns give all the particulars respecting the *personnel* of the Insolvent Debtors' and Bankruptcy Courts. The Chief Clerk of the Insolvent Debtors' Court receives 922*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*; the Provisional Assignees and the Registrar, 369*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* each. The Registrars of the Bankruptcy Court get 300*l.* each. The Official Assignees are paid by a per-centage allowed by the Commissioners of Bankruptcy on sums received by them out of the bankrupt estates.

No. XXXIX.—TICKETS OF LICENSE.

Return to an Address of the House of Lords, dated 25th August, 1856, for Account of the Number of Convicts under Tickets of License now on the Establishment of Smithfield, in Dublin; together with a Copy of the Regulations under which that Establishment is conducted; also Account of the Number of Convicts in the Establishment of Fort Camden, in Cork. (114.L.)

THE number of convicts employed in the Smithfield establishment, Dublin, on probation, previously to receiving tickets-of-license, was 59; and in Fort Camden, Cork, 77. The return gives also the regulations under which the establishments are conducted.

No. LXXI.—CIVIL SERVICE SUPERANNUATION.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to consider the existing regulations respecting the grant of Superannuation Allowances to persons who have held Civil Offices in Her Majesty's Service, and to whom also was referred "The Civil Service Superannuation Bill."

THE Committee, appointed on the 19th February, 1856, consisted of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Francis Baring, Lord Stanley, Sir Henry Willoughby, Sir Stafford Northcote, Viscount Monck, and Messrs. Gladstone, Roebuck, Henley, Macartney, Rich, Robert Palmer, Vincent Scully, Seymour Fitzgerald, and Osman Ricardo.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer reported from the Committee that they had considered the matters to them referred, and had taken evidence thereupon, which they had directed him to report to the House; and that they had gone through the Bill and made amendments thereto.

The following were the witnesses examined:—Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B., Assistant-Secretary to the Treasury; Mr. Richard Madox Bromley, C.B., Auditor of the Navy; Right Hon. William Goodenough Hayter, M.P.; Mr. W. H. Stephenson; Mr. William Willis, of the Transport Office; Dr. William Farr, F.R.S., of the Department of the Registrar-General; Mr. Felix John Hamel, Solicitor to the Board of Customs; Mr. James Spence, Portsmouth Dockyard; Mr. Henry Hutchings, Valuation Office, Dublin; Messrs. Edward Stephenson, and John Crowder, Dockyard, Portsmouth; Samuel Triscott, Victualling Office, Plymouth; Alfred De Blois Bliss, Poor Law Department, Dublin; John Allen, Officer of Customs, London; Right Hon. Sir James Graham, M.P.; Right Hon. Sir Francis T. Baring, M.P.; Mr. William Golden Lumley, Poor Law Commission; Joseph L. Hobson; Messrs. Thomas Rowe Edwards, Charles Ansell, and Peter Hardy, F.R.S., Actuaries; and John Tilley, Assistant-Secretary to the Post Office.

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

SALARIES.

Considerable reduction was made in the salaries of civil servants between 1821 and 1831. From a return obtained, showing the establishments of the public departments in 1821 and 1832, it appears that during that period 5,689 persons were reduced, and 1,026,189*l.* of annual salaries saved. The salaries of the principal Secretaries of State were reduced from 6,000*l.* to 5,000*l.* In 1821 the average salary in the Civil Service was 140*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.* In 1829, 134*l.* 17*s.* 8*d.* In 1832, 129*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*; and in 1835 it was reduced to 118*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* In this is included every class of office that is liable to the superannuation tax. The reduction arises both from decrease of salary and from reduction of office. With reference to the rate of salaries in 1816

and 1829, Sir James Graham pointed out the great financial changes that took place between the termination of the war in 1816 and the period of 1828, when the Finance Committee met. During the war there had been great depreciation of the currency. Payments in cash had been suspended. There had been large issues of inconvertible paper, and prices had risen enormously, and a corresponding increase of the salaries of the civil servants had progressively taken place. In 1819 the question of the currency was reviewed. It was determined that there should be a return to cash payments; 1829 was the period fixed for the final cessation of the one-pound note circulation. The value of money had been restored, and the great disproportion between the charge of what was termed the dead-weight or ineffective service, as contrasted with the effective service, had made a great impression upon the Finance Committee. The effective service cost at that time about 21,000,000*l.* annually, and the dead-weight amounted to 5,000,000*l.*; and the recommendation was strong by that Committee that every effort should be made to reduce the ineffective portion. The superannuations to the civil servants at that time amounted to about 500,000*l.* a year, and it was a growing charge. Then came the Reform Bill, and very stringent and increasing popular control over the expenditure; it was thought necessary that there should be a reduction of the salaries, even falling within the charge of efficient service. All the salaries of the great officers of State were reviewed. The salaries of the First Lord of the Treasury, the Secretaries of State, the First Lord of the Admiralty, and all the principal officers under the Civil List, were reduced, and it became a question whether there should not be prospectively a reduction to a large extent of the salaries of all the civil servants. It was thought that instead of carrying that reduction to the utmost, it would be better to make some deduction from the salaries short of the utmost reduction which would have been deemed necessary had there been no provision for superannuation, in consideration of a superannuation to be a charge upon the general revenues of the country. The total annual amount of salaries now paid is 5,539,660*l.* The average salary of the whole service is 141*l.* The average salary at retirement is 162*l.* Dr. Farr stated that 7,353 persons in the Civil Service have, on the average, 141*l.* a year; that two-thirds of the salaries average only 86*l.* a year; and that one-third average 264*l.* a year. Out of the 16,353 persons upon which Dr. Farr's calculations were based, 4,836 had average salaries of 264*l.*, and pay the five per cent. deductions. The salaries were, in the opinion of Mr. Bromley, far too low to bear the deduction. In the East India House they enter at 16 or 17 years of age, they commence at 90*l.*, and go up by periodical increments of salary to 700*l.* and 800*l.* a year, with various other advantages, such as assistants, up to 1,000*l.*, 1,500*l.*, and 2,000*l.* a year. The examiner of Indian correspondence gets 2,000*l.* a year, and he has an assistant examiner under him at 1,500*l.*, and he has his next assistant at 1,200*l.*, and the next at 1,000*l.* These are the prizes which a man entering at 90*l.* a year has a prospect of getting.

At the Bank of England the rate of salaries is as follows:—The clerks of the Bank of England are admitted into the service between the ages of 17 and 25; and the following is the scale of their salaries: at 17 years of age they receive 50*l.* per annum; 18 years, 60*l.*; 19 years, 70*l.*; 20 years, 80*l.*; 21 years, 100*l.*; those elected under 21 are advanced 10*l.* annually till 20 years of age, when they are advanced 20*l.*, thus making their salaries at 21 years of age 100*l.* per annum; after 21 all are advanced 5*l.* each annually, for eight years, and, subsequently, 8*l.* per annum, till they arrive at the maximum amount of 250*l.*, to the ordinary class of clerks, and to 300*l.*, as principals of offices. Then there are extra pays—Christmas gifts, &c. In the Bank of England of 765 persons, the average salary is 244*l.* a year. The average salary at the branches is 337*l.* a year. At Manchester the agent for superintending 70 clerks gets 2,000*l.* a year, with house, coals, and candles. At Birmingham, with only 13 clerks, he gets 1,700*l.*, with house, coals, and candles. At Liverpool, 2,000*l.* a year, with only 27 clerks, with house, coals, and candles. Mr. R. M. Bromley gave the following evidence:—In the estimates for the year 1855-6, the last estimates which are collected, there are about 7,620 officers and clerks, and other persons employed in the civil service above the rank of tidewaiters, coast-guardsmen, messengers, and inferior officers; the average salary of that number, from the highest to the lowest, is 202*l.* a year. The average salary in the highest offices, those offices included in class 2 of the annual estimates, is 292*l.*; in the War Departments, 281*l.*; in the Ordnance Departments, 242*l.*; in the Navy Departments, 227*l.*; in the Inland Revenue, 205*l.*; in the Post-office Departments, 159*l.*; in the Customs Departments, 155*l.* The average salary in the India House (including extra clerks), consisting of 159 persons, is 394*l.*; in the Bank of England (including branches), consisting of 903 persons, 258*l.*; in the North Western Railway (exclusive of secretaries, managers, superintendents and apprentices), consisting of 109 clerks, 135*l.*; in the Money-order Office, Post Office, consisting of 192 clerks, 95*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.*; in the Long Room of the Custom House, consisting of 185 clerks, 93*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* a year.

The low salaries in the Civil Service cause much want of steadiness in the character of the civil servants. Dr. Farr said, that of 16,353 officers, about 11,023 had wives living, as well as 21,952 children under 15 years of age, making, in the aggregate, 49,328 persons more or less dependent on the salaries. These officers, owing to small income and heavy expenditure, are also precluded from insuring their lives. The present salaries are far too low to admit of any deductions whatever. Sir James Graham would approve of an increase of salaries, if those now paid be found to be insufficient, rather than abolish the deductions.

DEDUCTIONS.

The first formal proceeding of the Treasury on the subject is dated the 30th of July, 1802, by which allowances on retirement in consequence

of ill-health or infirmity, were granted under the name of compensation to a few classes of officers of the Customs; but without any limitation of age, and with only a single rate of pension; so that the first attempt was very crude and elementary. The second minute is dated the 10th of August, 1803, and it extends the benefit of the previous arrangement to other classes of Customs' officers, and prescribes a graduated scale, according to which, one-third of the salary is to be allowed after 10 years; one-half between 10 and 20 years; and two-thirds after 20 years; and there was a third minute, dated the 7th of November, 1807, extending that arrangement to numerous other classes of officers of the Customs. The next proceeding was the Act of Parliament of 49 Geo. III., c. 96, by which a similar arrangement was extended to the Excise, and then, also, only one scale of retired allowance was prescribed, namely, a rate not exceeding three-fourths of the salary after 10 years' service. The first occasion on which the subject was dealt with generally, with reference to all officers, was by the Act of 50 Geo. III., c. 117, passed in 1810. By that Act, allowances on retirement were to be made by the Treasury, and a new scale was prescribed, according to which one-third of the salary was allowed after 10 years: one-half between 10 and 20; two-thirds after 20; and then, on a mixed calculation of age and length of service up to 50 years' service, and 65 years of age, when the whole salary was allowed.

On the 8th January, 1822, a minute was passed, by which a general revision of the salaries of the civil establishments was made, and based upon these two minutes was the Act of Parliament of 3 Geo. IV., c. 113, passed in August, 1822, according to which the liberal scale of superannuation allowances of the year 1810 was re-adopted, with certain modifications of detail; and it was directed that no deduction should be made from salaries under 100*l*.; that upon salaries between 100*l*. and 200*l*., $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. should be deducted; that upon salaries of upwards of 200*l*., 5 per cent. should be deducted, to the extent of the regulated salary authorized by the minute of January, 1822; and that, for any salary which any officer then holding office might receive above the regulated amount, 10 per cent. should be paid. It was also directed that the abatements, so to be made, should be formed into a fund to be carried to the credit of the commissioners for the reduction of the National Debt at the Bank of England; and that, if any civil servant died in office, or even after his resignation or removal from office, without having received any retired allowance, the whole amount of his contribution should be repaid; also, that half of the superannuation allowances granted after that period should be paid from the fund so created, and that the other half should be paid from the Consolidated Fund. The next public proceeding was the Act of the 5th of George IV., chap. 104, passed on the 24th of June, 1824, by which all superannuation allowances thereafter granted were directed to be paid from the Consolidated Fund, and the contributions which had been received under the previous Act were directed to be returned to the contributors;

and there is a Treasury minute, dated the 25th of January, 1824, which contains the details of that repayment; the sum then in hand, after paying the moiety of the pensions during the interval, amounted to 107,800*l.* stock, which was repaid in the proportions there specified.

In 1829 a Treasury minute was passed to the effect that distinct intimation should be given of the deduction to every person appointed in the civil service, by which $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum would be deducted from all salaries and emoluments not exceeding 100*l.* a year, and 5 per cent. per annum from all other salaries and emoluments. On the 25th July, 1834, the present Superannuation Act, 4 & 5 Will. IV. c. 24, passed.

By that Act the old scale of pensions prescribed by the Act of 1822 was maintained as regards the persons who had taken office previously to the date of the Treasury minute of the 4th of August, 1829; but as regards the persons who entered subsequently to that date, a lower scale of pensions was prescribed. The only words in the Act which directly bear upon the appropriation of the deductions are those in the 27th section, where it is stated that the abatements were made with a view to reduce prospectively the charge incurred in providing for superannuation allowances. The annual amount of compensation allowances from 1834 to 1854 inclusive was 218,564*l.*; of superannuation, 549,094*l.*, and of deductions 61,214*l.* The deductions now amount to an aggregate sum of about 760,000*l.* after payment of the charge for pensions, which, including interest, is more than 1,000,000*l.* The sum was stated by Mr. Bromley to have been obtained as follows:—From the year 1829 to the year 1851 the total sum paid was 580,698*l.*, and the total sums paid from that as pensions to any of the persons who assisted in contributing that amount was only 30,418*l.*, leaving a surplus balance of upwards of 550,000*l.* Since 1851 the sum paid as pension was 61,214*l.* The accumulation at the end of 1855 was contributions, 827,486*l.*, charge 68,706*l.*, and the difference about 760,000*l.* The ultimate amount payable as superannuation allowances to such persons under the tenth clause of the Act will be about 200,000*l.* That would be arrived at about the year 1899. And by these calculations the public would receive from the Civil Service 100,000*l.*, and pay in pensions 200,000*l.* The contributions under the Act of 1834 would not only meet the charge of pensions, but the surplus will, by the year 1901, accumulate to a fund of more than 5,000,000*l.*, producing at 3 per cent. more than the probable total charge of the pension list. At the present time the public at large are benefited at the expense of the civil servant. Sir James Graham was of opinion that no profit will arise from the deductions. Sir Francis Baring calculated that the deductions, allowing them to accumulate interest, would produce 200,000*l.* a year against a charge of 300,000*l.* a year. Sir Charles Trevelyan, Mr. Bromley, Mr. Willis, Dr. Farr, Mr. Hamel, and Mr. Tilley had decided objection on several grounds to stoppage from salaries as an equivalent for superannuation.

PENSIONS AND SUPERANNUATIONS.

The superannuations payable in 1854 amounted to 549,094*l*. In the Civil Service the pensions and superannuations are only 18 per cent. of the salaries. The Paymaster-General pays 138,609*l*. annually in superannuation, of which only 6,524*l*. are paid to persons who have paid deductions. It is calculated by Dr. Farr that those superannuated at 58½ years of age, enjoy their pensions for 10½ years. The total amount of compensation and pensions of the civil establishment of the United Kingdom is 1,122,778*l*.

AGES ON RETIREMENT.

In the opinion of Sir Charles E. Trevelyan, at the age of 60 civil servants should have it in their discretion to retire, and the age for compulsory retirement should be fixed, as a rule, at 65, although there are instances of valuable officers in the service who are between 70 and 80 years of age. Of 9,399 persons who received grants of superannuation during twenty years large numbers were superannuated at 50 years of age; still larger numbers at 60; 210 at 70; 12 at 80; and even 1 at the advanced age of 90 years. Of these there went off 63 at the age of 40; 128 at the age of 45; 237 at the age of 50; 363 at the age of 55; 501 at the age of 60; 426 at the age of 65; 210 at the age of 70; 67 at the age of 67; 12 at the age of 80.

APPENDIX.

The amount of salaries of the judicial establishments in England is 469,475*l*.; and of compensations and pensions, 178,586*l*. In Ireland, salaries, 190,235*l*.; and compensations, &c., 47,102*l*. In Scotland, salaries, 112,834*l*.; and compensation, 14,803*l*. Total salaries, 772,544*l*.; and compensation and pensions, 240,551*l*. Of other civil establishments the salaries amount to 4,826,865*l*.; compensation, 205,732*l*.; superannuations, 67,655*l*.; total, 882,287*l*. The compensation allowances of this class being one twenty-third part, or 4½ per cent.; the superannuation allowance, one-seventh part, or 14 per cent.; and the compensation and superannuation, one fifty-second part, or 18 per cent. During the five years ended 31st December, 1855, there were 1,632 officers pensioned, 84 to whom gratuities were granted, 875 that died in the service, 1,261 who have voluntarily quitted the service under ten years' service, and 95 above ten years' service.

In the Post-office of London, from the 11th August, 1829, to the 11th April, 1856, there were among the clerks 85 deaths, 311 resignations, 85 dismissals, and 10 pensions; total, 491. The redundant list of the public departments for 1854 comprised 277 on the list at the commencement of the year—8 who have died or became incapable of service, 175 who re-entered service during the year, 5 added during the year, and 101 that remained at the close of the year.

In 1834, the amount of compensation allowances was 334,733*l.* 8*s.*; of superannuation allowances, 358,211*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.*; total, 692,945*l.* 0*s.* 7*d.* Deductions, 7,266*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.* In 1854, the total amount of compensations and allowances was 767,659*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; and of deductions, 61,214*l.* 3*s.* 11*d.*

OPINION OF CERTAIN EMINENT ACTUARIES UPON THE CIVIL SERVICE
PENSIONS.

We have examined the statements and calculations with reference to the pensions granted after various periods of service, to civil servants, and we are unanimously of opinion—

- 1st. That the deductions of 2½ per cent. on some salaries, and 5 per cent. on others, are unjust, because the pensions of those who remain long in the service, and have paid the higher rate for a longer time, are virtually diminished, to make up the pensions of those who retire early, the larger proportion of whose payments may have been at the smaller rate.
- 2nd. That the age of entry, and the age of receiving the pension, not being duly considered, those who have paid the fewest number of contributions may in many cases receive much more than the proportionate annuity; and the effect must necessarily be that the remaining pensioners have not the full benefit which they could obtain from their deductions of salary if the fund was managed on the same principles as it would be in an assurance or annuity company.
- 3rd. We have also examined Dr. Farr's tables, showing the pensions that could be granted for the deductions of salary actually made, assuming the rate of retirement on pension through infirmity to be the same as that shown by the experience of the East India Company's labourers, combined with the rate of English mortality given in the Registrar-General's reports; and we consider that these tables may safely be used, believing that they state the results rather against than in favour of the pensioners on the Civil Service Fund.

These tables show that the average value of the pensions actually granted is considerably less than that of the pensions that should be given for the contributions deducted from the salaries of officials in the Civil Service, even leaving out of view the profits arising from resignations and discharges, and the Treasury deduction of 20 per cent.

J. HILL WILLIAMS, English and Scottish Law Life
Assurance Company.

EDWIN JAMES FARREN, Actuary, Gresham Life Insurance
Company.

ROBERT TUCKER, Pelican Life Insurance Office.

CHARLES JELlicoe, Eagle Insurance Company.

SAMUEL BROWN, Actuary of the Guardian Assurance
Company.

PERMANENT STAFF OF SUPERIOR OFFICERS AND CLERKS.

At the end of 1853 there was a permanent staff of superior officers (class 2) and clerks (class 3) of 13,849. During the five years ending 1853 there were entered of the same classes, 4,457; and left, 4,811; deaths, 882; superannuation, 1,382; and resignations and other causes, 2,547. The average number in the offices during the five years was 14,026—entered, 891·4; left, 962·2. The average number left annually by death, 176·4; by superannuation, 276·4; by resignation and other causes, 509·4. To every 100 in office there are entered, 6·4; and leaving, 6·9; leaving by death, 1·3; by superannuation, 2·8; by resignation and other causes, 3·6.

AVERAGE NUMBERS IN THE OFFICES, AND THE NUMBERS ANNUALLY ENTERING AND LEAVING.

CLASSES.	Average Number in the Offices during the 5 years 1849-53.	Average Number annually.		Average Number leaving annually.		
		Entering.	Leaving.	By Death.	By Superannuation.	By resignation and by other causes.
SUMMARY of the CLASSES -	89,619·0	3877·6	3269·2	503·0	406·0	2360·2
1. Political Officers -	38·5	16·4	13·8	·6	...	13·2
2. Permanent Staff and Superior Officers -	3539·5	170·2	230·8	54·0	66·4	110·4
3. Clerks -	10,486·5	721·2	731·4	122·4	210·0	399·0
4. Persons on Mechanical Works -	24,215·0	2765·8	2139·8	309·8	119·6	1710·4
5. Office Keepers, Messengers, &c. -	1339·5	204·0	153·4	16·2	10·0	127·2

No. LXXII.—SUPERNUMERARIES (IRELAND).

Return to an order of the House of Commons, dated 25th Feb., 1856, for Return of the Names and Dates of Appointment of all persons temporarily engaged as Supernumeraries, Draughtsmen, and Clerks in the Departments of Customs, Excise, Poor Law Board, and Board of Works in Dublin for the last five years. (Mr. Grogan.) (101.)

THE return gave the names of 18 persons appointed in the Poor Law Commission at a pay of 6*s.* per working day, to increase to 7*s.* after 10 years' service, and to 8*s.* after a service of 15 years.

The permanent clerks have salaries varying from 700*l.* maximum for chief clerks; to 100*l.* maximum, clerks 4th class.

In the Board of Public Works, 5 persons appointed; 2 at 7*s.*, 1 at 10*s.*, 2 at 5*s.* per week. The scale of salaries of permanent clerks in offices to which such temporary clerks have been attached is—3rd class, from 90*l.* to 150*l.*, progressing by 10*l.* a year; 2nd class, 160*l.* to 250*l.*; 1st class, 260*l.* to 350*l.*, progressing by 15*l.* a year; and chief clerks, 360*l.* to 450*l.* a year; customs and excise, *nil*.

No. LXXIII.—COMMERCIAL DISTRESS.

Report from the Secret Committee of the House of Lords appointed to inquire into the causes of the Distress which has for some time prevailed among the Commercial Classes; and how far it has been affected by the laws for regulating the issue of Bank-notes payable on demand. (31 L.)

THE Committee met for the first time on the 7th February, 1848. The following witnesses were examined—Messrs. James Morris, Governor, and James Prescott, Deputy-Governor of the Bank of England; John Horsley Palmer, Director of the Bank; Samuel Gurney, bill broker; Samuel Jones Loyd, banker; George Carr Glyn, M.P., banker; Matthew Marshall, Chief Cashier of the Bank of England; Alexander Henry Wylie, merchant, Liverpool; William Brown, M.P., merchant, Liverpool; James Lister, Union Bank, Liverpool; George Warde Norman, Bank Director; J. C. Wright, banker, Nottingham; Thomas Tooke, Governor of the Royal Exchange Assurance Company; William Cotton, Bank Director; Lord Ashburton; P. W. Kennedy, Western Bank of Scotland; James A. Anderson, Union Bank of Scotland; Archibald Alison, Sheriff of the County of Lanark; John Kinnear, merchant, Glasgow; John M'Donnell, Governor of the Bank of Ireland; and Robert Murray, Manager, Provincial Bank of Ireland.

The Committee reported as follows:—

A sudden and unexampled demand for foreign corn, produced by a failure in many descriptions of agricultural produce throughout the United Kingdom, coincided with the unprecedented extent of speculation produced by increased facilities of credit and a low rate of interest, and had for some time occasioned over-trading in many branches of commerce. This was more especially felt in railroads, for which calls to a large amount were daily becoming payable, without corresponding funds to meet them, except by the withdrawal of capital from other pursuits and investments. These causes account for much of the pressure under which many of the weaker commercial firms were doomed to sink, and which was felt even by the strongest. To these causes may be added a contemporaneous rise of price in cotton; and, with respect to houses connected with the East and West India Trade, a sudden and extensive fall in the price of sugar, by which the value of their most readily available assets underwent great depreciation.

In what precise proportion these different causes contributed to the common disaster there is some room for difference of opinion, but that each had a considerable share in producing it, no person has been found to dispute.

Some of these causes are obviously beyond the reach of legislative control. But upon those which are connected with the extension of commercial speculation, encouraged or checked by the facility, or the difficulty, of obtaining credit, by the advance of capital and the discount of

bills, the powers and position of the Bank of England must at all times enable that corporation to exercise an important influence. The Committee have, consequently, felt it to be their duty to inquire into the course pursued by the Bank acting under the provisions of the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32, and they have come to the conclusion that the recent panic was materially aggravated by the operation of that statute, and by the proceedings of the Bank itself. This effect may be traced, directly, to the Act of 1844, in the legislative restriction imposed on the means of accommodation, whilst a large amount of bullion was held in the coffers of the Bank, and during a time of favourable exchanges; and it may be traced to the same cause, indirectly, as a consequence of great fluctuations in the rate of discount, and of capital previously advanced at an unusually low rate of interest. This course the Bank would hardly have itself justified in taking, had not an impression existed that, by the separation of the issue and the banking departments, one inflexible rule for regulating the Bank issues had been substituted by law in place of the discretion formerly vested in the Bank. The banking department was considered to be thus absolved from all obligation, but that which was connected with the pecuniary interests of the proprietary. Though it may be true, as stated by the Governor and Deputy Governor, "that if they were to do anything for the interest of the proprietors that was not for the interests of the whole commercial community, the evil would fall back on the Bank, and, instead of having a beneficial effect, would have an injurious one, as far as the Bank is concerned;" yet this principle does not appear to have been practically recognised in all cases, and the Act of 1844 avowedly left the Directors at full liberty to act according to their own views of their corporate interests.

SECT. I.—CAUSES AND EXTENT OF THE DISTRESS OF 1847.

The following is the statement made on this subject by the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank:—

"An unprecedented large importation of food, caused by a deficient harvest, required in payment the export of a large amount of bullion, to the extent of about 7,500,000*l.*, from the coffers of the Bank, and probably not less than 1,500,000*l.* from other sources,—together 9,000,000*l.* From this great reduction in the available capital of the country, in addition to the still larger amount invested in railway expenditure, acting suddenly upon a previous high state of credit and excessive speculation, arose the pressure in the money market. There was an abstraction of 7,500,000*l.* from the bullion held by the Bank, and, consequently a diminution in the notes to that extent. I assume that 1,500,000*l.* may have gone out from the gold in circulation; that may be more or less, but I assume that about 9,000,000*l.* went out in the purchase of food in the course of the year 1847. Then I make a distinction between the panic and the pressure. The panic began by the failures in the corn trade. The price of wheat had risen to about 120*s.* Large arrivals of grain from the Continent of Europe, and

from America, coupled with the prospect of an early and abundant harvest, caused a sudden fall in price to about 60s., with a corresponding decline in Indian corn. The failure of most of the corn speculators followed this great reduction in price, and their failure caused the stoppage of an eminent discount broker having a large country connection. This latter failure, by closing one of the principal channels of discount between the country and London, caused distrust to extend into the country. Credit became affected by these failures, and several London firms of high standing also failed. Then followed, in rapid succession, the failure of the Royal Bank of Liverpool, the Liverpool Banking Company, the North and South Wales Banking Company, some private country banks, and the Union Bank of Newcastle, followed by a tremendous run upon the Northumberland and Durham District Bank. To these disasters succeeded alarm, and an almost total prostration of credit. The London bankers and discount brokers refused to grant the usual accommodation to their customers, and necessarily obliged every one requiring assistance to resort to the Bank of England. Money was hoarded to a considerable extent, so much so, that notwithstanding the notes and coin issued to the public in October exceeded by 4,000,000*l.* or 5,000,000*l.* the amount with the public in August, still the general complaint was of a scarcity of money. Credit was so entirely destroyed that houses trading to distant countries carrying on their business through the means of credit, by a renewal of their acceptances as they became due, were no longer able to meet their engagements, and were forced to stop payment. This was the state of things previous to the issuing of the Government letter in October.

"There are about thirty-three houses, comparatively speaking large houses, which have failed in London; they failed to the amount of 8,129,000*l.* The first seven are expected to pay in full; of the other houses there is one expected to pay 5*s.* 6*d.*, another 5*s.* 6*d.*, another 6*s.* 6*d.*, another 9*s.*, another 11*s.*, another 12*s.*, another 8*s.*, another 3*s.*, another 5*s.*, &c. The result is, that with respect to a large majority of those houses no assistance would have been sufficient to carry them through those difficulties."

"Is the average above 12*s.*?—With the exception of the first seven, which are expected to pay in full, it is believed that the average will not be more than 6*s.* 8*d.* in the pound."

Mr. HORSLEY PALMER stated—

"I consider the distress of the year 1847 to have arisen from the deficient harvest of 1846, and the failure of the potato crop of that year, which rendered necessary a very large importation of foreign grain. Consequent upon the arrangements made for that import, the exchanges with the Continent and America rapidly declined, and between the months of December 1846 and April 1847, the demand made upon the Bank in their banking department reduced the reserve from nine and a half millions in December to three millions in April, the last two and a half millions of which reduction took place between the 27th of March and the 17th of April. In consequence of that sudden reduction the Bank was compelled under the Act of 1844 forcibly to contract, in order to regain its position, and which forced proceeding caused a very severe pressure for the time upon the money market. Shortly after that period it transpired that speculations for the import of grain had been carried far beyond the power of the houses engaged in them to support, added to which the quantities

imported in the months of May, June, and July, occasioned a fall in the price of wheat from 110s. per quarter to 60s., and even below that value. This fall in the price of grain occasioned failures to a considerable extent in the corn trade, which engendered a material discredit in that and other branches of commerce. Subsequently to those events came the suspension of almost all the firms engaged in the trade with the Mauritius, which was followed by a general discredit, principally affecting the houses connected with India, particularly those most largely engaged in the export of British manufactures. These extensive suspensions caused a general discredit, and an abstraction of bank-notes and coin from circulation to a very material amount, thereby creating a largely increased demand upon the reserve of the Bank, which under the Act of 1844 it was found most difficult and indeed impossible to sustain, the amount of the reserve having been reduced on the 23rd of October to two millions, including London and the branch banks. Thus situated, notwithstanding the Bank had advanced the rate of interest in August, September, and October to five and a half, six, seven, and even nine per cent. per annum, the demand continued to increase until the 25th of October, when relief was afforded by withdrawing the restrictive clause of the Act of 1844, and by which the pressure was immediately relieved, and credit has since been gradually restored. During the whole period, from the middle of April to the day of withdrawing the restrictive clause in the Act of 1844, the foreign exchanges were in favour of this country."

Mr. SAMUEL GURNEY, the head of the house of Overend and Co., bill brokers, gives the following description of the events of 1847 :—

"The crisis in April 1847 arose from several causes. The failure of the potato crop and harvest of 1846, leading to an enormous importation of food coming upon an excited state of price and transaction, aided by the Bank canvassing for discount, and fomenting transactions, under the new principle that in the banking department they are to act on the same principle as private bankers, may be considered as the causes of that crisis. These led to an extent of demand upon the Bank for discount and otherwise, the yielding to which led them beyond the bounds of prudence, seeing the early payment of the dividends was at hand. Under the Currency Act they found themselves under the necessity suddenly of not only withdrawing their usual accommodation by way of discount, but of calling in with a severe and unrelenting hand the loans they had made upon the security of bills, Exchequer bills, &c. The suddenness and severity of this change was forced upon the Bank by the Currency Act. Had it not been for that, they would have spread over months what they felt themselves compelled to do in a few days, to the serious derangement of the money market, and to much alarming disaster. It is queried, was this crisis owing to the Currency Act? I think it cannot be fairly laid to the Act only, but to the causes before specified. It may, however, with truth be asserted, that the force of it and the evils of it were much aggravated by the effect of this Act, in the course of action it forced upon the Bank."

Mr. G. C. GLYN, M.P., gave the following evidence :—

"I consider that the pressure which occurred in April 1847 arose principally from the large importation of corn and other necessary articles

of food, and I consider also that the foreign exchanges having been affected by the operation of those causes, the pressure in point of fact was necessary, and was carried only to the extent which was required for the proper re-adjustment of the foreign exchanges. The foreign exchanges were re-adjusted, and in the course of the autumn set strongly in favour of this country. The harvest turning out very good in the months of August and September, large failures occurred amongst the speculators in corn. Those were the first occurrences of that description that took place in this country; subsequently they were followed by large failures of other mercantile houses. That went on down to the end of September, the pressure gradually increasing, but not to the degree which it arrived at in the course of the following month, when there was superadded to all those causes which had been operating before, a great degree of discredit and want of confidence throughout the country, which was very much increased by the failure of banks in Liverpool and in other parts of the country, and during the week ending the 23rd of October, by a general distrust that seemed to operate amongst nearly all mercantile classes, and was rapidly extending itself to the banking establishments throughout the country, very much resembling, in point of fact, at that time, what occurred in the year 1825. The other symptoms of 1847 had been entirely dissimilar up to the middle of October 1847; but in the last week, before the issue of the Government Letter, the symptoms of want of confidence which presented themselves were very much like those which occurred at the end of 1825. There appeared a want of confidence in the country generally, which caused country bankers to look for the assistance of their London correspondents, and which apparently, if it had not been for the letter of the Government, would have gone to a very great extent. In point of fact, the difference between the two periods of April and of October was extremely striking. The pressure of April was very soon over, and the Bank did everything within its power for the mercantile body at the time. Although they had been obliged to restrict their operations very much, yet they attended to the applications made to them, particularly those from Liverpool and some other places. But the pressure that occurred in October last arose apparently from entirely different causes. It proceeded from an apprehension on the part of all mercantile men that the want of confidence was becoming so great that at last the reserves of the Bank would be driven down so very low, that, in point of fact, persons who were possessed of property would not be able to convert that property into Bank of England notes."

Mr. Geo. W. NORMAN, a Director of the Bank of England, on the same subject said—

"I consider that the causes which produced the pressure upon commerce in the spring of last year, and in the autumn, were the potato disease and the failure of other crops, the vast absorption of capital arising from the railways, and considerable over-trading in some branches of commerce."

Mr. Norman added, that he believed that the value of foreign corn imported amounted to 30,000,000*l.*, for which payment must necessarily be provided.

Mr. COTTON said—"My impression is, that there never was a time when

so many parties had engaged in operations so much beyond what they ought to have done, with reference to their capital, as in the year 1847. Considering what occurred in 1847—the very large payments for food, the failures in the corn trade, the amount of calls for capital for railways, and also the failure of the India and other houses, and the exposure of the very small amount of real capital, and in many cases minus capital, under which they carried on a large amount of business—I think we might have expected many more solvent houses to have failed. There was a very large, and I think indiscreet, extension of trade beyond the capital the parties had to carry it on, in the corn trade, in consequence of the profits which had resulted from the first importations of corn. In the India trade there was a larger extent of trade carried on than was justified by the amount of capital, and which had been supplied by renewing bills. There was also a very large amount, far beyond what the parties were justified in appropriating, on fixed securities in the Mauritius trade. After the failure of one or two houses it appeared that credit had been stretched to a most unreasonable extent, larger than I ever recollect.”

The great majority of the witnesses do not concur in Mr. Cotton's opinion, but unite in representing the intensity of the pressure as more severe than the distress of 1837 and 1839; many even consider it to have been greater than that of the year of panic, 1825. The Committee extract the following evidence to this effect:—

“Has the distress and pressure upon the public been greater or less during the last year than in any preceding cases to which you have alluded?—I think it was greater during part of the year 1847 than ever I remember.

“With greater damage to commercial credit and fortunes than on any other occasion?—I should say certainly.

“Do you apply that observation to the country generally, or to London?—I apply it to the whole country, especially to all the commercial parts of the country.”

Mr. GURNEY's opinion on this subject is equally distinct and decided—

“Are there, in the history of the money transactions of this or of any other country, circumstances that can be at all compared to those that have taken place in this country in the last twenty months?—I think that the catastrophes of last autumn were beyond all parallel in our monetary history, as far as I know.”

Mr. George Norman concludes that in 1837 and 1839 the causes of pressure were much less extreme than in the year 1847. In 1839 there was but little insolvency of any kind. In 1837 there was, as well as the witness recollected, no considerable insolvency except in the American trade. In 1847, on the contrary, he stated that “every one seemed afraid of his neighbour”; and, in the opinion of Mr. Tooke, the time was approaching when “nobody would pay anybody.” Another witness, Mr. Lister, states, “There was a panic through the country;

people thought they were in an iron cage, and could not get out of it: that iron cage was the Act of 1844."

On the other hand, it is right to observe, that some witnesses represent the pressure in 1847 to have been less severe than at several former periods.

And Mr. JONES LOYD will be found, in his evidence, as follows, to express his opinion more strongly as to the greater intensity of the pressure on several former occasions than in 1847.

"Within your experience do you know any time in which there was a greater disturbance of credit, so as to necessitate an increase of the reserves, than there was in that month of October, 1847?—I believe that the disturbance of credit was greater and more widely spread in 1825 than it was in 1847."

"Do you suppose that any evil can occur to a great commercial city greater than that which happened during the year 1847 in the city of London, or that there ever were instances in which so complete a sacrifice of property, and so complete an impoverishment of commercial capital, has taken place in any country?—I have no doubt that there existed much greater pressure, and that the evils alluded to in the question occurred in a severer form in this country in 1783, in 1793, and in 1825. We are always apt to form an exaggerated estimate of the present evil. This is the account given by Mr. Tooke of what took place in 1783: 'This contraction of the currency was attended with a great rise in the rate of interest. Consols fell from sixty-eight to fifty-four. Omnium from a premium of eight per cent. to below par. Every one (says Chalmers) must remember how impossible it was to borrow money on any security for any premium.' Then again, take 1793: 'Many houses of the most established credit failed. Houses of undoubted solidity, possessing ample funds, which actually did in a short time enable them to pay every shilling of their debts, were obliged to stop payment. Some bankers, who almost immediately on recovering from the first panic resumed the regularity of their payments, were obliged to make a pause. Many whom the temporary assistance of even a moderate sum would have enabled to surmount their difficulties could not obtain any accommodation. Those who had any money, not knowing where they could place it with safety, kept it unemployed and locked up in their coffers.' Such is the account given in Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce* of the pressure in 1793. It would be a most incorrect and exaggerated account of the state of things in 1847. Then again, as regards 1825, we have Lord Ashburton's account of 1825, as given in Sir Robert Peel's speech, which taken as a description of 1847 would be a great exaggeration."

Such is the description of the commercial world in 1847, given by well-informed witnesses; and the Committee consider that a more alarming picture of the consequences of panic and discredit could not well be given. It must also be recollected that in some respects the conjuncture was favourable. Had there been at this time any domestic political alarm, had there been any foreign war, or any speculations in foreign loans, or had the state of the balances in the Exchequer been such as to render necessary

large advances from the Bank on deficiency bills, the extent and intensity of suffering, great as they actually were, would have been rendered still more formidable. But from these sources of danger the country was happily exempted. Still it is clear to your Committee that the difficulties and dangers of the case were such as to require a remedy, prompt, decisive, and effectual.

SECT. II.—TREASURY LETTER, 25TH OCT., AND ITS EFFECTS.

That remedy was sought and found in a departure from the restrictive principles of the Act of 1844, authorized by the following Letter of the First Lord of the Treasury and of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, dated the 25th of October.

“ GENTLEMEN,

“ *Downing-street, 25th October, 1847.*

“ Her Majesty’s Government have seen with the deepest regret the pressure which has existed for some weeks upon the commercial interests of the country, and that this pressure has been aggravated by a want of that confidence which is necessary for carrying on the ordinary dealings of trade.

“ They have been in hopes that the check given to transactions of a speculative character, the transfer of capital from other countries, the influx of bullion, and the feeling which a knowledge of these circumstances might have been expected to produce, would have removed the prevailing distrust.

“ They were encouraged in this expectation by the speedy cessation of a similar state of feeling in the month of April last.

“ These hopes have, however, been disappointed, and her Majesty’s Government have come to the conclusion, that the time has arrived when they ought to attempt, by some extraordinary and temporary measure, to restore confidence to the mercantile and manufacturing community.

“ For this purpose, they recommend to the Directors of the Bank of England, in the present emergency, to enlarge the amount of their discounts and advances upon approved security; but that, in order to retain this operation within reasonable limits, a high rate of interest should be charged.

“ In present circumstances, they would suggest that the rate of interest should not be less than eight per cent.

“ If this course should lead to any infringement of the existing law, her Majesty’s Government will be prepared to propose to Parliament, on its meeting, a bill of indemnity. They will rely upon the discretion of the Directors to reduce as soon as possible the amount of their notes, if any extraordinary issue should take place, within the limits prescribed by law.

“ Her Majesty’s Government are of opinion that any extra profit derived from this measure should be carried to the account of the public, but the precise mode of doing so must be left to future arrangement.

“ Her Majesty’s Government are not insensible of the evil of any departure from the law which has placed the currency of this country upon a sound basis; but they feel confident that, in the present circumstances, the measure which they have proposed may be safely adopted, and at the same

time the main provisions of that law, and the vital principle of preserving the convertibility of the bank-note, may be firmly maintained.

"We have, &c.

(Signed)

"*The Governor and Deputy Governor
of the Bank of England.*"

"J. RUSSELL.

"CHARLES WOOD."

It should be remembered that the insertion of a clause in the bill of 1844, investing the Government with such a relaxing power, had been discussed, and rejected. The Committee consider that the step so taken by her Majesty's Government, in the exercise of such authority, was wise and successful.

The House of Commons have resolved, during the present session, "That in the peculiar circumstances of the period the Government were justified in this extraordinary exercise of power." But, in assuming the responsibility of authorizing the relaxation of the Act, the Government in fact "dispensed with the express provisions of an Act of Parliament." The interposition of the Treasury has been thus understood, and explained by many of the witnesses. The Governor of the Bank considered that when once the Government Letter issued, the Bank was no longer responsible; he considered that he had authority to "break through the Act." The "responsibility of the Bank to provide for the security of the banking department ceased after the 22nd October. On the 23rd it was intimated that the Government Letter was to be issued on the 25th; and it was understood that the Bank was to act on that day (the 23rd) according to the spirit of the Government Letter. Consequently the accommodation given on the 23rd, was "given on that understanding." Mr. Glyn observes, "the Letter of the Government stopped the crisis, and abrogated the Act." Mr. Brown considers the letter to have "virtually condemned and annulled the Act of 1844." Another witness apprehends "that the Bank would have had to shut its doors in a week unless the law had been violated."

On the other hand, Mr. Samuel Jones Loyd states his opinion, that "although the Letter was a departure from the positive provisions of the Act, it was not a departure from the principle of the Act." This is a distinction which the Committee cannot recognise. The force of the enactment was clear and intelligible. The Treasury Letter authorized a departure from that principle, and even recognised the possible necessity of applying to Parliament for indemnity. A sanction was thus given to a course unwarranted by law. No issue, it is true, was made beyond the powers of the Act of 1844; but that issue, if it had been made, was authorized by the Letter of the Government; and, practically, the consequences were precisely the same as if the Bank had made such issue. Mr. Loyd states that the "Bank did nothing under the Letter; the amount of notes with the public was not increased; that power was not exercised." The Letter was, nevertheless, actively and powerfully operative.

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"The issue of the Letter to a considerable degree relieved the money market," observes Mr. Norman, "by holding out to persons the certainty that they might get accommodation, whereas before they feared that they should not." The amount of notes hoarded by bankers and commercial men was at once released. These notes have been estimated by Mr. S. Gurney at about 4,000,000*l.*; and this acted as effectually as if an additional issue on securities had been made by the Bank.

This effect is well described in the following extract from the evidence of MR. GLYN:—

"It produced the same effect as if the Bank of England had made an issue; because it brought out the hoards of notes, and they went into circulation. It thereby added to the circulation of the country, and it removed the cause of the panic, which is stated to have arisen from the Act of 1844.

"Looking at the state of the reserve after the Letter of the Government came on the 23rd of October, through October, November, and December, and seeing that the reserve constantly rose, and that at the same time the bullion rose with it, did not that favourable turn in the affairs of the Bank, and in the facility of the circulation of the country, arise from the act of 1844 being set aside by the Letter of the Government?—I consider that the Letter of the Government of the 25th of October having in effect got rid of the clause in the Act of 1844 which limits the amount of the circulation to 14,000,000*l.*, produced the effect alluded to."

The salutary consequences of this step were recognised gratefully by almost every witness, even by those most favourable to the Act of 1844. "All alarm appeared to have ceased on the issue of the Letter," observes the Governor of the Bank; and subsequently he adds, "what restored confidence was the Letter of the Government, allowing the Bank to make any advances without reference to the Act, at a given rate of interest. We did not so much want the money, but we wanted a certainty that if we did want it we should get it." The opinion of Mr. Horsley Palmer is equally decisive. "In autumn of 1847 the demand for assistance was so much increased as to place the Bank in imminent danger by granting it, and which nothing could have relieved short of the relaxation of the law which took place."

MR. SAMUEL GURNEY illustrates this statement by his own case. He observes:—

"We required about 200,000*l.*, and had it at 9 per cent. On the Monday morning we had again a very heavy demand upon us; and we applied to the Governor, and said, that to supply Lombard Street with what was wanted we should require 200,000*l.* more. It was a case of difficulty for the Bank under its reduced reserve, and under the limitation of the Act. The Governor postponed a decision on our application to two o'clock. At one o'clock, however, the Letter from the Government authorizing relaxation was announced. The effect was immediate. Those who had sent notice for their money in the morning sent us word that they did not want it, that

they only ordered payment by way of precaution. And after the notice we only required about 100,000*l.* instead of 200,000*l.* From that day we had a market of comparative ease. The alarm lessened; and by the end of the week we had to ask as a favour of the Bank to be allowed to repay the money which we had borrowed of them."

Nor was this immediate and effectual relief confined to the metropolis. As the pressure had been general so likewise was the relief. The Committee have had a letter given in evidence, from which the following extract will strikingly exemplify the effects of the Government interference as felt in the great commercial town of Liverpool :—

"The state of things immediately previous to the promulgation of the Government Letter of 25th October was perfectly fearful, and, I believe, without precedent in the commercial history of this country. Bills of Exchange, of the first quality in themselves, and to which this and other banks were willing to add their endorsement, were absolutely inconvertible into cash; and it is my firm belief that many houses, who were not merely solvent but able to pay 40*s.* and 60*s.* in the pound, must have stopped had the Government Letter not been issued. Immediately on the issue of that Letter the whole difficulty was removed. Not only were our bills available at the Bank of England, but with all the discount brokers; they were, I may say, eagerly sought for by the country banks, and by private moneyed parties seeking for investments, at even lower rates than the Branch Bank of England here were willing to discount at. This showed, beyond dispute, I think, that the scarcity of money was artificial, not real, and that the panic was a moral one, caused by the mischievous and whimsical provisions of the Bank Act of 1844, and not by want of confidence in the securities (the Bills of Exchange) themselves, for the securities remained of course precisely the same after the 25th October as before that date. I have no hesitation in stating that, in my opinion, the Letter of 25th October virtually annulled the Bill of 1844, and saved the country from an almost universal stoppage of payments, in which the banking department of the Bank of England would have been included."

It should not be forgotten that the recommendation of the Treasury, though imposing the condition of a minimum rate of interest of 8 per cent. was wholly unrestricted as to the amount of advances authorized. Unless it had been so unrestricted in amount it would probably have failed. It placed the Bank, so far as the authority of the Government could do so, in the position in which it would have stood if the restrictions of the Act of 1844 had never been enacted, or had been repealed. "The remedial character of the measure," observes Mr. Loyd, "was not the discounting at eight per cent., but the declaration to the public that, at eight per cent. interest, there was an unlimited supply of bank-notes at their command. The Bank could not possibly make that offer without the sanction of the Government." It was the knowledge on the part of the public, that there was actually the "power given to the Bank to advance any quantity of notes without limit, that produced the effect. Without the

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authority of the Government the Bank could not have produced that confidence."

It is true that the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank are inclined to think that the letter of the 25th October might have been dispensed with, so far as they were concerned, and that the Bank of England might have been placed in a position of safety by precautionary measures; and a resolution was entered into, on the 25th October, by the Court of Directors, expressing an opinion "that no deviation from the provisions of the Act of 1844 regulating the currency was required in consequence of any difficulties on the part of 'the Bank;' but that they consented to the measure recommended by her Majesty's Government on the grounds of public necessity, urged by the First Lord of the Treasury and the Chancellor of the Exchequer." It becomes therefore essential to consider the actual state of the Bank of England at that time, to ascertain whether that was a state of safety or not, and whether any remedial or precautionary measures have been suggested, which, by rendering the Bank secure, would have made the suspension of the law by the authority of the Government unnecessary; for unless a step involving such extraordinary responsibility and so undisguised a departure from the law were indispensable, it could not be justifiable. Its absolute necessity was its sole justification.

The state of the Bank reserve on the 23rd October is shown to have been—Notes, 1,547,276*l.*; Coin, 447,240*l.*: Total, 1,994,516*l.*

But on the 23rd October it had been intimated that the Government Letter was to be issued on the 25th, and it was understood that the Bank was to act on the 23rd according to the spirit of that Government Letter. The accommodation given in consequence on the 23rd October was on that understanding, and the reserve was necessarily to some extent diminished. On the 30th October the account stood as follows:—Reserve—Notes, 1,176,740*l.*; Coin, 429,384: Total, 1,606,124*l.*

Thus the reserve of notes, which had been 2,630,000*l.* on the 16th October, had fallen on the 23rd to 1,547,000*l.*, and to 1,176,000*l.* on the 30th October, having decreased nearly 1,500,000*l.* within the short space of fourteen days. At this last period, of the total reserve of notes, amounting to 1,176,740*l.*, no more than 568,470*l.*, was held in London, making, with the gold coin in the banking department, 719,523*l.* At the same time, the private deposits for which the Bank was responsible amounted to 8,580,000*l.*, independently of upwards of 4,766,000*l.* of Government deposits. The total deposits on the 30th October were 14,500,000*l.*; the deposits of the London bankers being more than 2,000,000*l.* at the same time. In reference to this state of things the following important evidence was given by the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England.

"You had only 1,600,000*l.* in the banking department for the payment of your liabilities?—Yes.

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"If anybody had called upon you for anything beyond that million and a half you must have stopped payment?—Yes, we must.

"At that time, if there had been no separation between the two departments, and the Bank of England had been conducted on its old principle, instead of being within one million and a half of stopping, there would have been very nearly 8,500,000*l.* of treasure in your vaults?—We should have had 8,500,000*l.* in our vaults."

It is, however, right to add, that the same witnesses state that they could not admit that the Bank was in any danger of suspending its payments. "We should not have been able to give the same extent of accommodation that parties were requiring of us. We might have put into account a considerable sum by selling consols. We had going off weekly bills to the extent of 1,500,000*l.*; so that by discounting even at the rate of 100,000*l.* a day to give the public some accommodation our reserve would still have increased at the rate of 900,000*l.* a week. It is certain that in a very short period we should have had as large a reserve as would be necessary for our purposes, and therefore the Bank was never at any period in jeopardy."

The correctness of this conclusion, however, depends on the practicability of the remedial measures recommended; namely, first, the sale of stock, and secondly, the limitation of discounts. A further question also remains, assuming these measures to have been practicable and successful, for the security of the Bank, in the first instance, whether their consequences would not have been ruinous both to public and private credit, and ultimately fatal to the Bank of England itself. These questions the Committee now proceed to consider.

1. *Sale of Consols.*—At the end of October, it appears from the statement of the Governor of the Bank, that the amount of stock held in consols and reduced was from two millions to two millions and a half; the remainder of the public securities held was the dead weight, being annuities for terms of years, which are not always so easily disposed of. The Governor considered that the Bank might easily have availed itself of two millions of three per cents. But this stock, even if it could have been sold to that extent, would not have strengthened the reserve to the extent of the amount sold. On this point the same witness gives the following important information:—

"Will you state what effect you conceive would have been produced upon your deposits if you had proceeded at that time to sell securities to any considerable extent?—My impression is, that supposing we had sold securities to the extent of about two millions, it is probable that the deposits might have been effected to the extent of about one million, so that by selling two millions of securities we might have strengthened the reserve by about one million.

"The reason why it would have the effect of reducing the deposits is, that the act of selling securities would naturally make securities cheaper, and parties having deposits at the Bank might be induced to employ a

portion of their deposits in the purchase of securities, in consequence of securities being cheaper.

"If we had sold to the extent of two millions it might have affected us to the extent of one million. But I think we may assume that money upon the Stock Exchange is, generally speaking, cheaper than it is elsewhere; the consequence is, that we might take money out of the Stock Exchange without its generally affecting the country for some little period, and, therefore, the action of drawing out the deposits might not be so rapid as would otherwise be the case."

But this is strongly controverted by many of the most intelligent witnesses, who doubt whether securities to this amount could have been found saleable at all, at the period referred to, except at an enormous loss. Mr. HORSLEY PALMER was asked—

"What would have been the difficulty of effecting sales of securities?—The difficulty would have been in finding bank-notes to pay for them. I think the Governor did try to sell a small amount of funded property at a reduction of two or three per cent. about the 21st of October; but it would have been quite impossible in the state of public feeling that then existed to have gone into the market with a million, or a million and a half of securities, and have found bank-notes for them.

"Would it not have been attended with great distress to many parties?—Unless the prices had been forced down to sixty or sixty-five, or some enormous reduction, bank-notes could not have been procured."

It should be borne in mind, in reference to this evidence, that the witness examined is a leading director of the Bank of England, and one who was specially conversant with all the events of 1837 and 1839, with the extent and resources of the Bank, and the possibility of making these resources available at a time of commercial pressure. This opinion was carried still further in his subsequent examination, which was as follows:—

"Supposing that in the month of October, when the reserve of the Bank was low, and when the public were aware that the reserve was low, the Bank had proceeded to sell stock to the amount of 2,000,000*l.*, do you think that would have had any material effect upon the funds or not?—I think it would have forced the price of three per cents to sixty. There is no price that I can name that they might not have fallen to. If any violent measure of that sort had been taken, no one can say what might have been the consequence. I do not believe that the Bank could have got two millions sterling of notes by selling stock towards the middle and end of October."

This conclusion is borne out and fully confirmed by the evidence of Mr. GLYN at a subsequent period. Mr. Glyn may be taken as a fair representative of the London bankers, and as giving the result of thirty years of experience in the money market.

"You said that it would not have been possible for the Bank to sell stock to any great amount at the period of panic?—I believe not. On the 23rd of October 200,000*l.* was sold with some difficulty.

"Are you aware that it was the opinion of the Bank broker that a very large sum might have been sold without materially affecting the price of stocks?—I was not aware that the Bank broker had stated that. I should say, from what I saw at the time, that the sale of a million or two millions, which were the figures talked of, would have been almost impossible without knocking down the funds to such a price as would have created a further panic."

Mr. BROWN, M.P., an extensive American merchant, expressed the same opinion in still more unqualified terms.

"Supposing they had not taken that course, but had felt it necessary to recruit their reserve by the sale of securities, do you think that the circumstances of the Stock Exchange at that time would have admitted of the sale of a million or two millions of stock or Exchequer Bills?—I do not think it would, without very great sacrifices; and if the panic had been equal to what we might suppose it might have been under such circumstances, I doubt whether they could have been sold at all.

"But even assuming that they could have been sold at a considerable sacrifice, would not that have entailed the consequence, not only of a sacrifice to the Bank, but of a sacrifice to all the holders of public securities?—Certainly. I think the remedy would have been worse than the disease."

The attention of Mr. TOOKE was called in the following manner to the evidence given by the Governor of the Bank on this subject, and the questions and the commentary are so important that the Committee think it right to bring the whole passage under the observation of the House.

"You alluded to the jeopardy in which you conceived the banking department of the Bank to have been placed in September, 1847. Your attention is requested to an answer which was given by a witness before this Committee. 'I cannot allow that the Bank was in any danger of suspending its payments. I will take the reserve as it read upon the Friday night previous to the Letter being issued upon the Monday. I do not take the Saturday, because we were then acting under the expected issue of the Letter. The Bank reserve at that period, the Friday, was 2,376,000*l*. We should have had no difficulty whatever in meeting all our liabilities. We should not have been able to give the same extent of accommodation that parties were requiring from us. Parties came, and thought they had only to ask for money, and they would have it at once. We might have put into the account a considerable amount by selling consols. We had going off weekly bills to the extent of 1,500,000*l*., so that by discounting even at the rate of 100,000*l*. a day, to give the public some accommodation, our reserve would still have increased at the rate of 900,000*l*. a week. It is certain that, in a very short period, we should have had as large a reserve as would be necessary for our purposes; and, therefore, I maintain that the Bank was never at any period in jeopardy.' If you were told that such was the opinion of the Governor of the Bank of England, would you say that he took a very erroneous view of the situation of the Bank at that moment?—It would entirely depend upon what is meant by the term 'jeopardy.' I did not go the length of saying, that I thought they could not maintain

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their payments, but I considered that they would be in very great difficulty in doing so. I do not imagine that the Governor of the Bank, or anybody, could form an adequate conception of what might or might not have been the difficulty of the week following the 23rd of October. The Governor talks of selling consols. It might be. But I can easily conceive a state of things in which the Bank could not have sold consols at all. If they had withheld bank-notes from the public to the extent which is supposed in that answer, I do not believe that bank-notes would have been found to pay for the consols."

2. *Limitation of Discounts.*—The remedy of diminishing the discounts would have led to many of the same consequences with those attending a forced sale of securities. This measure would undoubtedly have increased the panic, by aggravating the pressure, and without supposing any combined movement on the part of the depositors to call up their deposits, necessity and private interest must have led to that result. The deposits available on demand must, to a certain extent, have been called for to supply the place of the discounts reduced or withheld, and the Bank would have had to encounter an inevitable loss on the one hand, whilst fruitlessly endeavouring to secure a contingent advantage on the other. In the course of this process it is scarcely necessary to point out how much the commercial difficulties must have been aggravated. This cannot be denied even by those who anticipate that the Bank might have been relieved, and the Bank reserve strengthened. But if the effect had been to increase the pressure and alarm to a greater degree, by the limitation of the discounts, than that alarm and pressure were mitigated by the augmentation of the reserve, the condition of the Bank, already shown to be perilous, would have necessarily become still more alarming, and "the remedy might have proved," to use the words of a witness already quoted, "still worse than the disease."

On these grounds, and not relying with any confidence on either of the remedies proposed by the Bank, as likely to have proved safe or effectual, and believing that, even if adequate for the special interests of the Bank, they would have entailed upon the public, as well as on the commercial classes, discredit, loss, and suffering, the Committee again repeat their approval of the Treasury Letter of the 25th of October, which, as an extraordinary assumption of responsibility, dispensing with the restrictive provisions of the Act of 1844, and inconsistent with them, would not otherwise have been justifiable, but, on the contrary, would have exposed the Government to well-deserved censure.

SECT. III.—EFFICIENCY OF THE CIRCULATION NOT IDENTICAL WITH ITS MONEY AMOUNT.

The Committee have hitherto confined their observations to the practical effects which the Act of 1844 has had upon the commercial distress of 1847. They feel it their duty to consider, likewise, some more general questions, which, whilst they have essentially affected the period of distress,

are also of more permanent and universal application. The inflexible rule, considered to be invariable and self-acting, and adopted by the Legislature as connected with and consequent upon the separation of the departments of issue and of banking, and the regulations provided for both, is founded on certain principles which before they can be adopted demand very serious examination. The Act appears to assume that one fixed amount of notes out of the custody of the Bank, and in the hands of the public, will at all times produce the same effect, and will be governed by the same laws. Unless this proposition be true, the uniform and fixed rules of the Act of 1844 can hardly be justified. It seems to have been on this principle alone that the following evidence of Mr. S. J. LOYD has been given. He was asked whether, in consequence of the low state of the reserve in 1847, the Bank were not constrained to put a very heavy pressure on commercial accommodation. He answers;—

“I totally deny that fact, and I appeal to the published returns in support of the denial. At the very moment spoken of, the total amount of securities in the hands of the Bank was 31,000,000*l.*, and the total amount of the private securities was 20,000,000*l.*, an amount almost I believe altogether without a precedent. Therefore I cannot understand how any person can say that at that time the Bank of England was putting a severe pressure upon the mercantile world, when in point of fact the notes in the hands of the public were to an amount almost unexampled, and whilst the amount of accommodation given to the public by the Bank in the form of discounts was an amount which I believe had never been known before.”

It would appear that in this answer Mr. Jones Loyd looks mainly to the numerical amount of notes issued by the Bank, and assumes that the accommodation possessed by the public may be measured by that amount, and by the corresponding securities in the hands of the Bank. On considering the evidence given before the Committee, this will be shown to be a defective standard. This inference may be drawn from the following evidence of Mr. HORSLEY PALMER:—

“In answer to some questions that were put to you with respect to the amount of notes issued by the Bank about the month of October, 1847, you stated to the Committee upon a previous occasion the amount of notes then out. But is it not the fact that that is not the measure of their activity in the market? Was not a considerable portion of the issue in October, 1847, an issue rather for the purpose of precaution and reserve than for active circulation in the country?—I believe, from the best opinion I can form, that there were nearly 3,000,000*l.* of notes issued merely for the maintenance of credit, and not required for circulation.”

The Governor of the Bank, whilst fully confirming the fact stated by Mr. Loyd, draws a distinction in relation to the notes out of the hands of the Bank, which establishes the principle which the Committee are now investigating; it was not that there was an insufficient amount of accommodation given to the public, but that the public were hoarding notes; bankers

would not part with their money, and country bankers had a large amount of notes sent down to them.

Mr. NORMAN draws the same distinction. He states, in reference to this period, that the amount of the circulation was high, at least, much higher than on many former occasions; but the panic occasioned much hoarding.

“Therefore it diminished the amount of paper that was actually in circulation, and diminished the activity and efficiency of the circulation?—The spirit of hoarding diminished the efficiency of the circulation.”

This spirit of hoarding, as it is here termed, refers to the necessity under which every banker or commercial man finds himself in times of internal discredit and alarm. He is compelled in prudence to increase his reserves and then to withdraw notes from active circulation. This obvious fact is stated by Mr. LOYD in reply to the question:—

“Does not such a state of disturbance of public confidence necessitate an increase of the reserves which all men under great pecuniary engagements must keep in order to answer those engagements?—In a period of disturbed confidence the reserves of bankers are augmented.”

The experience of Mr. SAMUEL GURNEY leads him to the adoption of the same principle, and his calculation of its practical results in 1847 carries him even beyond the conclusions of Mr. Palmer.

“When you say that a diminution in the amount of the reserve in the Bank and of the bullion in the Bank occasions scarcity, it only occasions scarcity inasmuch as it obliges the Bank to diminish its accommodation to the public?—Clearly. But I would go on to say, that several causes began to operate upon the rapid rise in the value of money. (I am now speaking of August, October, and November.) The failures began to take place in August. The number of failures in each week was increased, and was at last followed by a considerable panic. The effect of that panic was to cause very general distrust, and a gradual running down of the reserved fund of the Bank as well as of the bullion. After a little time people began to think, under the influence of this panic, how are we to get circulating medium? And the wealthy and more powerful took care very largely to over-provide themselves, and drew upon the reserves of the Bank infinitely beyond the real necessities of the case. The consequence was, that the amount of notes in the hands of the public amounted to nearly 21,000,000*l.*; and I have not the slightest doubt that at that period at least from four to five millions sterling of the notes issued were locked up and inoperative, in consequence of the alarm and of a fear of not being able to get bank-notes at all.”

On a subsequent day Mr. Gurney confirmed this evidence, and described in a very striking manner the contrast which exists between the effects of a smaller amount of bank-notes in times when no alarm exists and a much larger amount during a period of discredit.

“I wish to call the attention of the Committee to the fact, that at the end of October of last year the amount of bank-notes in the hands of the Bank

was 20,800,000*l.* At that period there was great difficulty in getting possession of bank-notes in the money market. This arose from the alarm of not being able to get them in consequence of the restriction of the Act of 1840. At present the amount of bank-notes in the hands of the public, according to the return in the last Gazette, is 17,700,000*l.*, but there being now no commercial alarm whatsoever it is much beyond what is required. There is no banking house or money dealer in London but what has a larger amount of bank-notes than they can use."

Although the answer of Mr. Loyd, already referred to, might seem to clash with the evidence of Mr. Palmer and Mr. Gurney, an admission of another and of a sounder principle may be deduced from his subsequent evidence. Mr. LOYD had been examined before the Committee on banks of issue in the House of Commons, and the following reference was made to his previously expressed opinions.

"In the evidence which you gave before the House of Commons Committee in July 1840 you stated, in reference to the state of things in the month of June 1838, 'There arose a state of great public alarm, which acted in a manner tantamount to a contradiction of the circulation.' Taking that principle so clearly laid down by you into account, would the amount of notes which had been issued from the Bank measure the amount that were in actual circulation at that time?—I consider that the amount of notes in the hands of the public and the amount of notes in the Bank till constitute the amount of notes in circulation. It is perfectly true that the circulation may be in a more active or in a more dormant state. It is perfectly true that the same amount of notes will at different times be more efficient in performing the functions of circulation; that in proportion as confidence is firm the circulation is more efficient, and as confidence is shaken circulation becomes less efficient. A diminished efficiency of circulation and a contraction of the amount in circulation may in some respects produce the same results; but they are still totally different things."

No explanation seems to have been given of the difference between the diminished efficiency of circulation produced by alarm and an actual contraction in the amount of circulation to which it had in 1840 been considered as tantamount. The Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England, on the other hand, appear to recognise and admit the principle laid down by Mr. Horsley Palmer and Mr. Gurney. Their evidence is as follows:—

"Is not the rapidity of circulation of promissory notes issued by the Bank totally different in a time of panic and disturbance of credit from what it is in a time of prosperity and rising prices?—Yes."

Nor do these conclusions rest wholly on the evidence taken before the Committee. The important principle, that the efficiency of the circulation cannot be estimated merely by its numerical amount, however that numerical amount may constitute one of the elements from which its efficiency is to be inferred, rests also upon earlier authorities. The following most important passage is extracted from the bullion report of 1810:—"The mere numerical

return of the amount of bank-notes out in circulation cannot be considered as at all deciding the question whether such paper is or is not excessive. * * The effective currency of the country depends on the quickness of circulation, and the number of exchanges performed in a given time, as well as upon its numerical amount; and all the circumstances which have a tendency to quicken or to retard the rate of circulation render the same amount of currency more or less adequate to the wants of trade. A much smaller amount is required in a high state of public credit than when alarms make individuals call in their advances, and provide against accidents by hoarding, and in a period of commercial security and private confidence, than when mutual mistrust discourages pecuniary arrangements for any distant time." Nor did these considerations escape the notice of the Committee of the House of Commons of 1819. The same principle is adopted, and accurately laid down, in the following passage of their valuable report:—

"Many circumstances contribute to affect the value of the bank-note,—the varying state of commercial credit and confidence, the fluctuations in the amount of country bank paper, and the different degrees of rapidity with which the same amount of paper circulates at different times."

If these principles be admitted,—and it appears impossible that they should be seriously controverted,—it is of the first importance to consider how far they are adopted in the Act of 1844, or how far the provisions of that Act are in conformity with them. On this subject the Committee will refer to the following questions and answers from the examination of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England.

"Under the Act of 1844 are you not restrained from issuing your paper, even though you might certainly know that it would not go into active circulation, but that it would be used only for the purpose of restoring confidence? Are you not subject to the same regulations as if it would go into most active circulation under all possible circumstances?—Yes.

"Do not you consider that there is an entire fallacy in the supposition that a certain amount of currency out at one time produces the same action as a certain amount of currency out at another; for instance, where either coin or notes are taken from the Bank for the purposes of hoarding in times of temporary panic, do not you consider that those notes produce a totally different effect upon the circulation from what they would produce if they were taken from the Bank in a time of active commerce and rising prices?—I consider that the same amount of notes will act very differently according to different circumstances. When 2,200,000*l.* additional gold had gone into circulation, of course a large amount was hoarded, and was an abstraction of that portion of the circulation which would otherwise have been usefully engaged.

"It is no longer currency?—It is no longer currency.

"How do you reconcile with those answers a rule which is governed universally by the amount of notes, assuming them to be homogeneous in their nature, and to produce the same effect upon currency and prices under all circumstances, without considering whether the notes are to be hoarded or to be put into active circulation?—(Mr. Prescott.)—I conceive,

certainly, that in time of panic the money market will bear the issue of a greater quantity of notes than it will in ordinary times for the ordinary purposes of trade, without affecting the exchanges."

The extent to which the disregard of the great principle which regulates the efficiency of the circulation is carried, and the consequence of adopting the inflexible rule of the Act of 1844, which assumes the same amounts of currency to be at all times equivalents, are most strikingly described by the following extract from Mr. GURNEY's evidence:—

"The panic of April very soon passed away. It was, however, attended with great temporary inconvenience, yet it was not so prolonged as to produce failures. As I stated before, in the beginning of August the panic which spread through the autumn and lasted till near the end of the year commenced by the failure of many houses in the corn trade. There was a sufficient cause for these failures, which were not owing to this Act at all. Alarm increased to the pressure of other houses; it shook credit; and other houses which were in dubious condition failed. Alarm increased; great depreciation in the value of mercantile property followed, as also of funded property. Afterwards the pressure reached houses that ought not to have failed, houses that had been fairly conducted, and were solvent. Now, so far as this, I think the Act had not much to do with it. The amount of bullion in the Bank remained large; not less than eight millions sterling. About the end of September alarm spread to a fear of getting circulating medium, in consequence of the restriction of the Act. The Bank raised their rate of interest very high; that increased the alarm, and a state of extreme panic was the consequence. Had it not been for the alarm the notes in the hands of the public would have been superabundant. We should have had a great number of failures, and a great amount of mercantile calamity, at all events; but we should not have had the same degree of calamity or panic, neither would the rate of interest have been so high. There was no real cause that the rate of interest should have got up to what it did. The extent of the calamity was the effect of the Act, and the Act only."

Many other statements, authorities, and illustrations might be given, exemplifying the same principles, and proving the evil consequences of disregarding them; but enough has been stated to prove, in the judgment of the Committee, that the inflexibility of the rule prescribed by the restrictive clauses of the Act of 1844 is indefensible, when equally applied to a state of varying circulation; and that its enforcement in 1847 was an aggravation of the commercial distress, and was therefore wisely set aside by the authority of the Government on the 23rd and 25th of October.

SECT. IV.—INAPPLICABILITY OF THE SAME RULE TO PERIODS OF FAVOURABLE AND OF ADVERSE FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

The Committee will now proceed to consider an analogous question; namely, the connection between the Act and the state of the foreign exchanges. It will be observed that the two questions of the efficiency

of the circulation, and of the contrast existing between a favourable and adverse state of foreign exchange, are intimately connected; internal demand, the hoarding of notes and coin, and the increase of banking and commercial reserves, being frequently the concomitants and consequences of a state of things perfectly compatible with a favourable foreign exchange.

In order to make their observations in respect to the foreign exchanges more intelligible as applied to the year 1847, it is expedient to bear in mind the leading facts of the case. Two different periods of pressure occurred in that year, the one in April, the other in October. These two periods were clearly distinguishable. In April the foreign exchanges were adverse, and the Bank was subject to a heavy drain of gold for export, more especially to the United States. In October the exchanges were favourable, gold was flowing in steadily, and the advices from abroad showed that more extended supplies might be depended on. This distinction, which is of the highest importance, is drawn by the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England.

“The pressure in the months of September and October I consider to be a very different pressure from that in the month of April. That in the month of April arose principally in consequence of the pressure from the export of the precious metals, and the circulation becoming more contracted, whereas I consider that in October to have arisen from a state of panic.”

On further examination the Governor stated, “the exchanges in October were favourable for the importation of the precious metals. In April 1847 gold was going to America.” The following evidence of Mr. HORSLEY PALMER is confirmatory of the same fact:—

“Comparing the pressure in October 1847 and the pressure in April, did not the chief distinction between the two consist in the different state of the foreign exchanges at the two periods?—The unfavourable exchange ceased about the middle of April.

“The exchanges were favourable in the month of October?—Yes.

“And favourable during the whole of the intervening period?—Yes.”

The same fact was stated by Mr. Cotton, on 31st March; “after the month of April all the exchanges, he believed, were favourable; the importation of the precious metals was going on through the whole period.” The contrast will appear still more striking when it is recollected that in spring the drain of bullion amounted to 9,000,000*l*. The subsequent state of things marks the change that had occurred. This is likewise stated by the Governor in his evidence:—

“Had not the demand for the export of bullion ceased a considerable time before the panic took place?—Bullion was coming into the country in August, September, and October 1847. Before the panic had taken place, bullion was coming in to a small amount. From the 1st of August to the 30th of October, 1,373,000*l*. was purchased by the Bank.”

It is true that, contemporaneously with this foreign influx, there was a

drain of bullion from the Bank; but the Governor of the Bank explains the cause of this, and distinguishes it clearly from the drain of the month of April:—

“You stated that the exchanges turned, and that there was an influx of bullion as early as the month of August. Now it appears by these returns that, notwithstanding that, there was a gradual diminution of bullion in the issue department of the Bank from that time down to the end of October; how do you account for that?—I have stated that there was an internal demand. I think that 2,200,000 sovereigns went out into the country in consequence of the internal demand, and therefore the bullion in the Bank decreased, although the importation had taken place.”

This evidence is sufficient to establish undeniably the difference between these two periods. The Committee now proceed to examine what has been laid down, on the highest authorities, as the sound rule on which banking transactions ought to be regulated under these contrasted circumstances. That a different course ought to be pursued in reference no less to the interest of the Bank than to the interests of the public, is stated by many witnesses. The following questions and answers convey the opinion of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank:—

“Do not you think that the management of the Bank with respect to the amount of its issues and the facility of discounts ought to be upon a different principle when the exchanges are adverse and when they are favourable?—When the exchanges are adverse, and gold is going out of the country, naturally the Bank cannot help taking measures to protect themselves, because it acts upon their reserve, and therefore naturally it would induce more caution.

“Independently of the Act of 1844 altogether, and looking at the prudential management of the Bank, do you not consider that it would be expedient to be cautious and restrictive in the amount of banking accommodation given when the exchanges are adverse; and that, on the other hand, there might be a freer management of the banking resources when the exchanges are favourable?—I should say that when the exchanges are against the country, and gold is going out of the country, we should naturally be cautious, because we feel the effect almost immediately. With respect to the other question, which I understand to refer to October,—the period when gold had been coming into the country,—I should say that we had then internal distress acting against us, and therefore there would not be the same circumstances that might guide us as upon other occasions; but the internal demand taking place, we were equally bound to provide for that as for the external demand. We are talking about gold, but I consider that in the banking department we have nothing to do with that. I look at the state of our deposits and other liabilities, and the reserve in the banking department.

“The question refers to the general principles of banking management; supposing the Bank were altogether free from the obligations of the Act of 1844, would not you as a banker feel it expedient to act with more caution with respect to your banking reserve at a time when there was a foreign efflux of gold than at a time when gold was coming in?—Decidedly.”

When Mr. HORSLEY PALMER was asked whether a different rule ought not to be applied to the two cases under consideration, his answer was as follows:—

“Do you, from your experience connected with this subject, conceive that it is defensible in reasoning, or maintainable in practice, that in managing the Bank the same rule should be applied to the case, whether the foreign exchanges be favourable to the country, or adverse to the country?—I think it is always in the power of the Bank to protect itself against a foreign demand, but it is totally impossible to protect itself against an internal demand.

“The question is with respect to the restriction imposed upon your issues for the accommodation of the public, whether you think that it is defensible in theory, or maintainable in practice, that you should have the same rule in managing the Bank when the exchanges are adverse and when the exchanges are favourable?—Certainly not.”

Nor does this seem to be controverted in principle, even by the witnesses who differ the most from the opinion of Mr. H. Palmer. Mr. S. J. LORD, on having the question distinctly brought before him, comes to the same conclusion; nor is this in the slightest degree affected by the distinction which he afterwards draws, and on which he reasons.

“Would not a different operation with respect to the amount of notes issued be rendered necessary and prudent in a case in which the exchange is adverse to the country, as compared with a case in which the exchange is favourable to the country?—The two things are separate and distinct. It seems to me that we are merely discussing about the mode of expressing ourselves; there is no real difference of opinion. Under an adverse exchange the aggregate circulation ought to be contracted; but it is possible that under an adverse exchange there may be a substitution of one portion of the circulation for another portion, which may be effected without reference to the other and distinct duty of contracting the aggregate amount of the circulation.

“Under an adverse exchange the circulation ought to be contracted; under a favourable exchange no such necessity exists?—Exactly.

“Do you consider that under adverse exchanges a contraction of the circulation might be indispensably necessary with a view to preserve convertibility, which in a state of favourable exchanges and influx of gold would not be required with a view to preserve convertibility?—There is no necessity for a contraction of the circulation whilst gold is coming in.”

Mr. GEORGE C. GLYN connects these principles more distinctly with the events of 1847, and in that respect renders them more immediately applicable to the questions referred to the Committee. Adverting to the case of 1825, in which credit was restored and panic removed by a large issue of notes, even when the amount of bullion was reduced to its lowest point (but which example should always be considered in relation to the fact that at the close of the year 1825 a large withdrawal of the paper of insolvent country banks had taken place, for which, to a certain degree, the increased

issues of the Bank of England were then substituted), Mr. Glyn proceeds in the following manner:—

“In that case, that of 1825, the increased issue of bank-notes, in place of creating a demand for gold, had the effect of bringing back the gold into the coffers of the bank?—No doubt it did.

“The contrary effect would have been produced if the exchanges had been against the country?—Yes.

“Therefore you distinguish clearly between the case of an external and of an internal drain?—Yes; the foreign demand for gold was met in April last by raising the rate of interest.

“Which you think was right?—Perfectly right.

“An internal drain is the effect of apprehension?—The effect of alarm.

“Is not the gold in that case much more likely to find its way back again to the Bank than in the case of a foreign drain, which must wait the improvement of the exchanges?—No doubt about it. Remove the cause of alarm, and the whole thing will take its own natural course, and the gold will flow back again.

“Placing the Bank of England in the position in which it stood during the last year, and supposing it to be left to act at its discretion upon the currency, do you think it possible to determine the point at which its duty would have been to abstain from diminishing the circulation, and to commence extending its accommodation?—I think it might. In 1847 the periods were very clearly and distinctly marked; and that when this pressure came in October 1847 the exchanges both with the United States and with the Continent of Europe had set in so decidedly in favour of this country that there could have been no apprehension of danger by enlarging the circulation.

“Have you attended particularly to the course of events in the last year, so as to be able to say at what point you think the Bank of England ought to have altered its course and extended its accommodation if it had the power?—I should put it about the month of September.

“Do you think that the state of the foreign exchanges is an invariable index of the nature of a pressure; that is to say, can you, from the state of the foreign exchanges, ascertain whether it is an internal or an external drain?—Certainly. You can always tell whether it is a demand for gold for export.

“You consider it an invariable index, so that there is no difficulty in determining the nature of the pressure?—Yes, from the fact of the exchanges being against this country.

“You can always ascertain whether it be the fact that gold is going out of the country?—Certainly.”

Such is the evidence on which the Committee rely for establishing the principle, that a different rule should be acted upon in regulating the issue of bank-notes when the foreign exchanges are adverse and when they are favourable. But this question is so essentially bound up with the whole state of things in April and October 1847, and with the expediency of maintaining the restriction of the Act of 1844, that the Committee must stand excused if they examine and bring before your lordships earlier and equally conclusive authorities, with a view to the general principles which

those authorities adopt and sanction, and for the still more important object of considering whether, if these principles are disregarded and set aside, in legislation and in practice, consequences the most ruinous must not inevitably ensue,—dangerous no less to the public interests than to private credit, and ultimately dangerous to the safety of the Bank itself.

The following extracts from the Bullion Report of 1810 will bring under the notice of your lordships the events of 1793 and 1797, illustrating the questions investigated in the present as well as in the preceding section:—

“ In 1793 the distress was occasioned by a failure of confidence in the country circulation, and a consequent pressure on that of London. The Bank of England did not think it advisable to enlarge their issues to meet this increased demand; and their notes previously issued, circulating less freely in consequence of the alarm that prevailed, proved insufficient for the necessary payments. In this crisis Parliament applied a remedy very similar in its effects to an enlargement of the advances and issues of the Bank. A loan of Exchequer bills was authorized to be made to as many mercantile men, giving good security, as should apply for them; and the confidence which this measure diffused, as well as the increased means it afforded of obtaining bank-notes through the sale of the Exchequer bills, speedily relieved London and the country. Without offering an opinion on the expediency of the particular mode in which the operation was effected, your Committee think it an important illustration of the principle, that an enlarged accommodation is the true remedy for the occasional failure of confidence in the country districts, to which our system of paper credit is unavoidably exposed.”

It may here be observed, in order to guard against misapprehension, that the difficulty expressed in the Bullion Report is solely in respect to the particular mode in which the increased issue of bank-notes was obtained, namely, by an advance of Exchequer bills; and that no doubt is raised respecting the expediency of granting an enlarged accommodation in periods of internal alarm, if unaccompanied by an advance of foreign exchange. This, as applicable to the events of October, is the real question to be solved.

The Bullion Report proceeds to describe the state of the country and of credit in 1797, and in doing so expresses the opinion of the Committee in the strongest manner.

“ The circumstances which occurred in the beginning of the year 1797 were very similar to those of 1793,—an alarm of invasion, a run upon the country banks for gold, the failure of some of them, and a run upon the Bank of England,—forming a crisis like that of 1793, for which, perhaps, an effectual remedy might have been found if the Bank of England had had courage to extend instead of restricting its accommodation and issue of notes. Some few persons, as appears from the report of the Secret Committee of the House of Lords, were of this opinion at that time; and the late Governor and Deputy Governor stated to your Committee that they and many of the Directors are now satisfied, from the experience in 1797, that the diminution of their notes in that emergency increased the

public distress; an opinion in the correctness of which your Committee entirely concur."

The Committee are unwilling to overlook the important testimony given to the same effect, by three authorities, whose weight as connected with inquiries of this character will readily be admitted. And their authority is the more important because it is not derived from casual observations in debate, or any unauthorized record of opinion, but is contained in publications of great and well deserved reputation. The authorities to which the Committee is about to refer, are Mr. Henry Thornton's Essay on Paper Credit, Mr. Horner's Commentary on that Letter, and Mr. Huskisson's Treatise on Depreciation. The opinions of Mr. Thornton and Mr. Horner were brought under the notice of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank, when examined before the Committee, and become still more important from the comment of these witnesses. The following extract is taken from the Minutes of Evidence:—

"In Mr. Thornton's memorable book upon paper credit, and Mr. Horner's observations upon it, there is the following statement. Will you have the goodness to tell us how far it consists with your judgment, and is borne out by late experience? 'At a period of internal discredit the country bankers limit the issue of their notes, and enlarge their reserves of cash; the money dealers of the capital participate in the alarm, and enlarge their reserves likewise.' Would not that be the tendency at any period of alarm, that all parties dealing in money would feel an anxiety to increase their reserves?—That would be the tendency certainly.

"That is followed up by this statement:—'Unless the Bank of England, therefore, which is the source of circulating credit, shall in these circumstances consent to enlarge its issues of paper, a general subversion and ruin of that credit may take place; but if it adopts that measure seasonably, and in the proportion that the new demands of the circulation require, the mischief may cease after a slight and temporary inconvenience. The experience of 1793 illustrates this. The pressure then began with a demand of guineas for the interior. The notes previously in circulation were not below the usual number, but that was rendered by a slower circulation insufficient. A loan of Exchequer bills proved a remedy.' Do you concur in that?—I should say that the Government Letter issued in October answered exactly the purpose there stated. Then, instead of Exchequer bills being issued, the Government allowed relief to be given in bank-notes under certain limitations.

"Mr. Thornton ends by stating, that 'In future seasons of alarm it may reasonably be expected that the Directors of the Bank of England will prove less timid.' Do you consider that these recommendations and these authorities can be acted upon consistently with the maintenance of the portion of the Act of 1844 to which your attention has been called?—I consider that the whole object of the Act of 1844 was to assimilate the paper currency as nearly as possible in its functions to a metallic currency. The same state of things might take place under a metallic currency which took place under a paper currency with the Bill of 1844, and the same interposition of the Government for the purpose of relieving commercial

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distress during the time might have taken place in the one case as in the other.

“The question is not, whether the Act of 1844 has answered the expectations of those who framed it, and of the legislature who passed it, but it goes to this simple point, whether that measure of a more extended issue on the part of the Bank, which, if those authorities are to be relied upon, is necessary, under such circumstances, for the maintenance of credit, can be resorted to under the express provisions of the Act?—No, it cannot.”

The observations of Mr. Huskisson were in like manner brought under the notice of the Governor and the Deputy Governor of the Bank, with a view of giving to those gentlemen the fullest opportunity of explaining how far they adopted or rejected that authority, as well as of comparing it with the banking transactions of 1847, and with the rule laid down by the Act of 1844. The evidence stands as follows:—

“Will you have the goodness to attend to the following passage. Mr. Huskisson states, in his pamphlet on ‘Depreciation,’ that ‘the consequences of sudden alarm cannot be measured; they baffle all ordinary calculation. Cash is then withdrawn, not because the circulation is excessive, but by the country banks and the town bankers, for the purpose of meeting possible demands upon them, and by the community at large, either directly from the Bank, or indirectly through the former channels, for the purpose of hoarding, from the dread of some imaginary or contingent danger.’ Does that describe accurately the effect that you think takes place under the circumstances of a panic as you have interpreted the word?—I think decidedly.

“Then, in the same passage, the following sentence succeeds: ‘In such a crisis every reduction in the amount of Bank paper is so far from checking the drain, that it aggravates the general distress, because the gold which is taken out of the Bank, instead of being substituted in circulation for the notes withdrawn from it, is, for the most part, locked up, and thus in proportion as the stagnant and straitened circulation wants life and aid, it becomes every day more embarrassed, whilst each new calamity produced by such a state of things contributes to spread and increase the general apprehension.’ Do you agree that under such circumstances the straitening of the circulation (assuming throughout that this is produced by an internal demand, and not by a disorganization of the foreign exchanges) tends, in the words of Mr. Huskisson, to spread and increase the general apprehension, and to make the commercial world more embarrassed?—Yes, I do. And I consider that the bill has provided a remedy for that, inasmuch as the straitening of the circulation causes a rise in the exchanges, and an importation of the precious metals for the purpose of performing that which an extra issue of notes would have done.”

Mr. Huskisson adds, in a passage which was not read to the Governor of the Bank, “It is therefore manifest that by a possible combination of things the Bank might be driven to part with its last guinea, not only without having checked the drain, but with the certainty of increasing it in proportion as their notes were diminished.” These latter words are not only applicable here, but offer an important commentary on the proposition of the

Bank, already adverted to, of allowing their bills to the extent of 1,500,000*l.* to run off, and to limit the re-discounts to 100,000*l.* a day. To such a mode of proceeding the following extract from the Bullion Report distinctly applies: "a very urgent demand for guineas, though arising not from a high price for gold and the state of the exchanges but from fear of invasion, occurred in 1793 and 1797, and in each of these periods the Bank reduced their discounts, and, consequently, also the number of their notes, very much below the demand of their merchants. Your Committee question the policy of thus limiting the accommodation in a period of alarm unaccompanied with an unfavourable exchange and high price of bullion." Yet it must be remembered that the policy thus condemned by the Bullion Committee was, in 1844, made imperative on the Bank of England, if the limitation of their discounts in October 1847 was to be resorted to in order to preserve the solvency of the Bank.

It is true that Mr. Huskisson continues his argument to the following effect:—"At such a moment the preservation of the Bank from actual failure, though an important, is but a secondary, consideration; that of the country is the first. The possible cases, however, which may call for such an intervention of power are not capable of being foreseen or defined by law. The necessity may not occur again; if it should, the application of the remedy must be left to those who may then be at the head of affairs, subject to their own responsibility and to the judgment of Parliament." The case contemplated by Mr. Huskisson was a case of approaching exhaustion of gold, and not a case like that of 1847, where, the Bank still holding 8,000,000*l.* of gold, an artificial deficiency of gold might have been created by the restrictions on its use imposed by the Act of 1844. It cannot be with certainty inferred from the above cited expressions of Mr. Huskisson, that he would, in the latter case, as well as in that which alone he could have had in view, have thought that the application of a remedy must be left to those at the head of affairs. Nor could Mr. Huskisson have anticipated a state of the law by which artificial restrictions should have been imposed upon the bank of the nature of those enacted in 1844. The panic of 1825, and the subsequent pressure in 1837 and 1839, were all met and overcome without any violation of the law. It was not till the stringency of the provisions of the Act of 1844 became felt, for the first time since the Bank restriction in 1797, that by a letter of the Government the law of the land was set aside. Mr. Gurney's evidence will enable a comparison to be made between the events of former times and those of the last twenty-five months. That witness observes, "If by the permanent law of the country is meant the Act of 1844, and it had failed only in one case, I should have been jealous of alteration; but we had three periods of crisis and great difficulty in our monetary system in the last twenty-five months, in each of which I am certain that the calamity and difficulty were materially aggravated by this Act. If there had been only one case I should wish to try it a little longer; but when we have

had three successive cases, one after the other, and in each case the difficulty has been extremely aggravated by it, I come to the solid conclusion that the Act must be relaxed."

From a letter produced by Mr. Cotton, it is clear that Sir Robert Peel, in framing the Act of 1844, contemplated the possible recurrence of a period of pecuniary crisis, in spite of the precautions which were then taken. The words of the letter are as follow :—

" Might there be circumstances, such as existed in the year 1825, in which an enlargement of the amount of Bank of England paper might take place greatly for the benefit of the country without any danger to the convertibility of its note?—That subject was fully considered at the time the Act of 1844 was framed. I have referred to a confidential communication which I had from Sir Robert Peel upon the subject, and I find among his letters a passage which I think completely answers that question. I requested his permission to state it, which he allowed me to do, and with the permission of the Committee I will read it. It expresses the result of a very long deliberation. It was in a letter from Sir Robert Peel, written from Windsor Castle on the 4th of June, 1844. He says, ' My confidence is unshaken, that we are taking all the precautions which legislation can prudently take against the recurrence of a pecuniary crisis. It may occur in spite of our precautions ; and if it does, and if it be necessary to assume a grave responsibility for the purpose of meeting it, I dare say men will be found willing to assume such a responsibility.' I believe that answers the question whether it may be safely done."

As a conclusive proof of the distinction between the rule which it is indispensable to apply in the contrasted cases of a favourable and of an adverse exchange, the Committee refer to the concurrent testimony of nearly every witness examined respecting the effect which the Treasury Letter of the 25th October would have produced in April, or at the time when actually issued ; bearing in mind, that at the former period gold was flowing out of the country, and that, at the latter, gold was coming in. " I believe if the Letter had been issued in April instead of doing good it would have done harm," is the statement of the Governor of the Bank. Mr. Lorn, who approves of the Letter, though entertaining much apprehension of its consequences as a precedent, draws the same distinction in the following part of his examination.

" What difference existed between the two periods of April and October which makes the argument which you use in justification of the Letter in October not applicable to the former period of April?—In April the adverse state of the exchanges was barely rectified ; a slight cause would again have turned them against us ; but in October they became clearly and decisively in our favour.

" Do you think that the state of the exchanges is that which ought to guide the discretion of the Government with reference to the issue of a similar letter of relaxation?—I think it would be impossible to issue such a letter with safety unless the exchanges were in our favour, and decidedly in

our favour; it does not follow that the mere fact of their being in our favour would justify the issuing of the Letter."

Nor does Mr. COTTON hesitate in expressing the same opinion. His evidence, which the Committee inserts, is particularly clear and distinct on this question, and is the more important as he is one of the very few witnesses who entertain some doubt respecting the expediency of the Treasury Letter.

"Are the Committee to infer from your former evidence that you are of opinion that whilst the Letter in October produced no mischief or inconvenience, if the Letter had been issued at a period anterior, say in April, it would in your judgment have produced inconvenience?—In my opinion, in April, when we were not certain as to the amount of gold which might be required for the importation of corn, if the Letter had been issued, it might have produced a mischievous effect in reducing the amount of bullion and risking the convertibility of the note.

"The exchanges were adverse in April, and they were favourable in October. The Letter of the Government was useful in October, and you think would have been mischievous in April. Now do you think that the circumstance of the favourable exchange at the one period and the unfavourable exchange at the other lies at the foundation of the principle which, in your judgment, makes the Letter a wise one at one period and an unwise one at the other?—I do not think I have said it was a wise one at either period. I should say it was a safe one at the one period, it might have been a wise one for what I know."

The Committee have hitherto considered the question of the distinction between periods of an influx or efflux of gold, produced by the exchanges as affecting the Bank of England only. But the subject requires further investigation in relation to the effects produced on private credit and private interests, by confounding these two cases. It would appear from what has been already stated, that if an extension of currency were to take place when the exchanges are adverse, the convertibility of the note would be endangered; a contraction of the currency is consequently called for. If, on the contrary, at a time of internal discredit, but of a favourable exchange, the same contraction should be applied to the currency, panic must ensue with all its formidable consequences. The following question and answer exhibits the consequences of both alternatives; they are taken from the evidence of Mr. GLYN.

"Your attention is requested to the following answers which were given by Mr. Jones Loyd before a committee of the House of Commons in 1840, in reply to questions from Sir Robert Peel:—'You have stated that it is difficult to guard against the consequences of a drain of the bullion of the Bank arising from internal causes?—Yes. One of those internal causes might be alarm, and perhaps unfounded alarm, as to the solvency of a particular establishment; as, for instance, to the means of the Bank to pay its notes in gold; and that might be one of the causes of a drain of gold?—Certainly. Supposing there was some very eminent mercantile house that foresaw the probability that it would be unable to fulfil its engagements on

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a certain day, might not the failure of that house contribute to increase that alarm?—Certainly it might tend to spread that alarm. Might not the failure of one house lead to the failure of other houses?—Certainly. Might not the alarm go on increasing in consequence of repeated failures?—Certainly. Supposing the Bank prevented the original failure by giving a timely supply of notes to that house, might not the Bank prevent, by that timely supply, and by supporting the credit of the individual house, the origin of this unfounded alarm?—Undoubtedly. Might not, in that case, the Bank contribute to support the public credit?—Undoubtedly it might. Do those questions and answers describe a state of things in which, in your judgment, commercial credit might be safely assisted if the Bank was left free to use its own discretion, but from which it would be restrained under the operation of the Act of 1844?—Clearly; always reserving the point as regards the state of the foreign exchanges."

These answers, it may be thought, are hypothetical; they were, however, subsequently illustrated by a real case. Mr. GLYN was asked—

"Do you recollect the period at which considerable accommodation was given by the Bank of England to the Northern and Central Bank?—I do.

"That was a matter of controversy at the time?—Great controversy.

"In the evidence given in the year 1841, Mr. George Norman was examined upon that subject, and, in reply to a question whether it was expedient that that assistance should be given, said, 'Yes, I believe it was. The Committee will observe that there was no danger then from any foreign drain; and under all the circumstances of the case I believe the Bank acted properly.' Does not that amount, upon the high authority of Mr. Norman, to a recognition of the distinction between the propriety of granting such accommodation when the exchanges were favourable, and what the case would have been if they had been unfavourable?—It is a recognition of the principle which I think ought to actuate the government of the Bank."

The attention of Mr. NORMAN was subsequently called to this case, and to his former answers, and he saw no reason to alter or to object to them. Mr. Norman, it should be borne in mind, is strongly in favour of the Act of 1844, and unwilling that any alteration should be made in its provisions.

"Do you recollect the period in 1836 when the Bank of England gave assistance to the Northern and Central Bank?—Yes, I have a general recollection of it.

"In your examination in the year 1840 you were asked, 'Are you of opinion, from the knowledge which you at present possess of the state of circumstances at the time, that it was expedient that that assistance should be given?' Your answer was, 'Yes, I believe it was; the Committee will observe there was no danger then from any foreign drain, and, under all the circumstances of the case, I believe the Bank acted properly.' Do you conceive it probable that the internal drain on the Bank would have been increased if that assistance had been withheld?—It is possible. Does not that recognise a distinction between the course which the Bank ought to

pursue in the case of an internal and in the case of a foreign drain?—I see nothing to object to in those answers.”

Another very memorable case occurred in the year 1837, when the great discredit of certain American houses unfortunately occurred. Of this transaction Mr. HORSLEY PALMER gave the following account:—

“In relation to the power which the Bank has of giving accommodation without thereby aggravating danger or sustaining loss, it is stated in your evidence before the House of Commons in 1840 that the large advances given to American houses had been at that period almost entirely repaid. Have those accounts been liquidated?—Not entirely at the present time; but, as far as the accounts have been made up, I think the loss sustained will not exceed 200,000*l*.”

“And that was on transactions of about 6,000,000*l*?—Yes. Those accounts can be obtained from the Bank, if necessary, for the information of the Committee.

“That was the means of saving those American houses?—There were three of the principal American houses that failed, but the aid afforded by the Bank rendered essential service to others engaged in that trade. Almost every house connected with America was in a state of discredit, and unless the Bank had come forward at that period, I do not believe that there would have been more than one or two houses that could have sustained themselves.

“And the Bank could not have done so if the Act of 1844 had been in existence?—Certainly not.”

The Committee are fully aware of the danger which may result from such interpositions if they take place without just consideration, and, above all, without a strict regard to the uniform maintenance of the convertibility of the bank-note; an obligation which should never be forgotten, or considered otherwise than as a primary duty.

These cases are referred to, less with a view of proving that the Bank was necessarily right in the exercise of its discretion on those occasions than to exemplify the impolicy of subjecting the Bank to an unvarying rule depriving them of all discretion, even when the exchanges are favourable, as in October, and when the convertibility of the note cannot be affected.

SECT. V.—THE ACT OF 1844 APPLIES THE SAME RULE IN CASES OF AN ADVERSE AND A FAVOURABLE FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

The Committee now proceed to examine whether the Act of 1844 does effectually discriminate between the two cases of favourable and adverse exchange, which the evidence and authorities they have quoted prove to be indispensable, or whether, on the contrary, the obligations of that Act are not uniform and identical in both cases. This latter proposition is deducible from the following evidence of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank.

“You have stated that in prudent banking a different line of conduct

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would be pursued by a banker on those two occasions; does not the Act of 1844 compel the Bank of England to act upon precisely the same principle, whether the lessening of the gold arises from a foreign demand or from an internal drain?—The difficulty that we have is from mixing up the two departments together; but certainly the Act of 1844 obliges us to act upon the same principle, except that that which is an internal demand may merely arise from accidental circumstances, which will be corrected when the foreign import, or the purposes for which it shall be wanted, have been accomplished, whereas the export of bullion would necessitate an immediate corresponding limitation in the amount of notes, and therefore affect our reserve.”

It is made still clearer by the following question and answer, taken from the testimony of the same witnesses:—

“You are under the same obligation under the Act of 1844 to deal with your issues precisely in the same way in the case of adverse exchanges and an efflux of bullion, and in the case of favourable exchanges and an influx of bullion?—Yes.”

During an examination tending to show the distinction between exchanges adverse or favourable, the Governor of the Bank stated that there was a distinction between the drain according as it was foreign or domestic, and that this was shown in the exchanges, and in the demand for bar gold. He was asked,—

“On general principles, what are the causes of an internal drain for gold; does it arise from money being in excess and interest being low, or does it arise from money being deficient for the purposes of the country and interest being high?—An internal drain may arise from distrust in the country, or from an increased demand caused by an increased want for the larger transactions of the country.

“Then, in these respects, an internal drain and a foreign efflux depend upon directly opposite principles?—Yes.

“Does not the Act of 1844 deal with these two things precisely in the same manner?—Yes.”

Mr. LOYD carries his views somewhat further, and, whilst admitting the fact, seems inclined to express an opinion which may be construed as an approval of this principle. This will appear from the following questions and answers:—

“You consider that in its banking department the Bank should conduct its banking business in the same way whether the drain is for foreign or for internal purposes?—I apprehend that the banking department should not look to the causes of a drain of bullion, but simply look to the state of the banking reserve.

“The principle of the Act of 1844 has reference purely to the amount of bullion at any one time as compared with another time, and has no reference to the question whether that bullion has increased or diminished by the action of the foreign exchanges or from any other cause?—The Act of 1844 substantially does not look to the causes of an increase or diminution

of bullion. It merely says to the public, if you like to have the bullion coined, and to use it in that form, you shall have it; if you do not like that, and like to deposit your bullion in our cellars, you shall have the convenience of having notes in its stead."

The conclusion to be drawn from the authorities and evidence cited in this and the preceding sections is, that it is an error to deal solely with the positive amount of bank-notes in circulation, excluding the disturbing causes which may augment or diminish the efficiency of those notes; that to apply one identical rule to cases where the exchanges are adverse, or are favourable, is an error likewise; that in both these respects the Act of 1844 is defective, and that in consequence of these defects it aggravated the distress of 1847, more especially in the months of September and October, and that it must have a tendency to lead to the same results hereafter whenever similar circumstances shall arise. The Committee will conclude this branch of the subject by the following question and answer from the evidence of the Governor of the Bank.

"In those cases where the demand for gold arises from an internal panic the Bank of England is restrained in its banking operations by the Act of 1844 precisely in the same manner as it would be restrained if there was a demand upon the Bank for the foreign exchanges. Is not that likely to cause an aggravation of the evil in the case of an 'internal drain?'—That was the case in October. It is impossible to legislate for a panic. We all know that a panic is so devoid of all reason that you cannot legislate beforehand to meet it. It was for that purpose that the Government issued the Letter as a corrective at that particular moment."

SECT. VI.—THE BANK LEFT FREE FROM RESPONSIBILITY IN THE ISSUING DEPARTMENT, AND LEFT FREE LIKEWISE TO MANAGE THE BANKING DEPARTMENT ON THE PRINCIPLE OF A PRIVATE BANK.

The Committee proceed to consider some very important results attending the new banking system introduced by the Act of 1844, and which appear to have produced serious consequences to the commercial interests.

The separation of the two departments was founded upon the supposition, that the issue department would be regulated by a self-acting invariable principle, and that in the banking department the Directors were to be left free to use their full discretion like any ordinary trading company acting for the profit of its proprietors. This is stated by Mr. HORSLEY PALMER.

"The Bank was given to understand it had nothing to do with the circulation; that the object of the Bank was to look at the banking account alone. In making that statement I beg to say that I dissent entirely from that doctrine; but that was the doctrine laid down for the government of the Bank.

"And upon that the Directors have acted since the Act of 1844?—They have professed to do so."

The same view is taken of the duties of the Bank by Mr. S. J. Loyd, as

appears by the following answer : "It was distinctly stated by Sir R. Peel, when introducing the Act, that he left the Bank of England, in its banking capacity, untouched and uninterfered with, to manage its affairs according to its own discretion, like any other banking concern." On this discretion the Court of Directors have largely acted, as will appear from the following facts.

SECT. VII.—UNEXAMPLED FLUCTUATION IN THE RATE OF DISCOUNTS SINCE THE ACT OF 1844.

The earlier practice of the Bank of England had been to discount at a rate nearly fixed and uniform. From 1704, to 16th May 1839, this rate never exceeded five nor was less than four per cent. In the pressure of 1839 the rate was raised for some months to six per cent., but it was reduced to five per cent. in January 1840, and remained at four or five per cent., as before, till after the passing of the 7 & 8 Vict. cap. 32. "Prior to September 1844," observes Mr. Horsley Palmer, "the Bank never reduced the rate of interest below four per cent. ; though there were occasions when the value of money for discount of bills was as low as two and a half per cent. in the money market." The result of this system, your lordships will perceive, must necessarily have been to check that fall in the rate of discount, when already low, which the active competition of the Bank of England must have produced, and, on the other hand, to check the tendency upwards which would have been the result of a reduction in the number of lenders, and of a consequent scarcity of money. In the one case the Bank was kept out of the discount market; in the other it obtained almost the command of that market. In both cases the effect was to produce steadiness and diminish fluctuation.

This system was abandoned in September 1844, after the passing of the Act. For the rate of discount already described, there has been substituted a rate which fluctuates from time to time; a minimum rate has been substituted, in the Bank notices, for a uniform one, and a practice has been introduced of discounting bills at the same time at different rates. The accounts in the appendix exhibit the extent and duration of these fluctuations, —a fact which is also illustrated by the following question put to Mr. HORSLEY PALMER, and his reply:—

"In your experience as connected with the City of London, independently of your connection with the Bank of England, have you ever known such vicissitudes in the rate of interest and of discount as there have been since the Act of 1844?—Certainly not.

"Do you connect those great variations of interest in any considerable degree with the Act of 1844; in other words, supposing that Act had not passed, and your banking operations had been carried on in October upon more enlarged principles, do you think that, considering the resources which the Bank then had at its disposal, and that the exchange was favourable, you

would have had that rate of interest?—Certainly not. I think the Bank were perfectly able after the month of April to have continued a moderate rate of interest, so long as the exchanges remained favourable, which would have tended greatly to promote the commercial prosperity of the country.”

The evidence of Mr. TOOKE on this point is still more distinctly given, and is to the following effect:—

“During the year 1847 what were the general fluctuations in the rate of discount as compared with the fluctuations in the rate of discount at anterior periods of pressure which you remember?—I never knew any year in which there was so great and so violent an alteration in the rates of discount as during the year 1847.”

Mr. Cotton states that in his commercial experience he never knew such a fluctuation in the rate of interest as occurred in 1847.

As to the rate of interest, it appears from the evidence of Mr. Brown, that the contrast between the years 1837, 1839, and 1847 was as follows:—1837, lowest rate, $3\frac{1}{4}$; highest rate, $5\frac{1}{2}$; difference, $2\frac{1}{4}$. 1839, lowest rate, $3\frac{1}{2}$; highest rate, $6\frac{1}{2}$; difference, $2\frac{1}{2}$. 1847, lowest rate, $3\frac{1}{4}$; highest rate, 10; difference, $6\frac{3}{4}$. He adds, “This does not give an accurate view of what the interest of money was in 1847, because persons frequently paid a commission which made it amount to 10, 20, and 30 per cent., depending on the time the bill had to run, and the pressure of money at the moment. The commission charged in 1837 and 1839 was by no means to the same extent. The Governor of the Bank states, that on the 23rd of October 225,000*l.* was discounted by the Bank in the London market at rates varying from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 per cent.” Afterwards he added, in reply to the question, whether within his own experience or within his own knowledge he was able to refer the Committee to any period when the variations in the rate of interest were so considerable as they were during the period to which his evidence applied, “I have no recollection of a period in which the variations in the rate of interest have been so great.”

The Governor of the Bank admits that such fluctuations are of great injury to the country, but he attributes them, not to the Act of 1844, but to other causes, whilst Mr. Tooke and Mr. Gurney considered them mainly owing to the operations of the Bank of England.

But the Committee are far from wishing to lead your lordships to the conclusion that it has been the high rate of interest which has exclusively or even mainly been productive of mischief in the commercial world. On the contrary, it appears that evil consequences, to the full as great, are traceable to the periods of forced depression of interest.

The Bank of England admit that the principle on which the rate of interest is fixed is regulated mainly by the state of the reserve in the banking department.

Hence, when the reserve is high, the Bank are led to lower the rate of interest, and thereby the commercial profits of the corporation are increased. Such was the case up to October 1845, when the rate of discount was at two and a half per cent.

The management of the discounts and business of the Bank seems to have been profitable, as the dividends, which had been reduced from eight to seven per cent., have risen in the present year to nine per cent., including two bonuses of one per cent. each.

The effect of a low rate of interest could not fail to give a great additional stimulus to speculation of all kinds. It could not but have augmented the facility of forming joint stock companies for railroads and other purposes. In the former cases it so acted, the more effectually, as the Bank of late adopted a practice of investing its capital in railway securities. The sum of 2,481,000*l.* was so invested, and these securities seem by the Bank to have been substituted for the floating debt of the country. In 1844 the greatest investments of this kind took place. This proceeding is the more questionable, when it is considered that the Governors, in describing the causes of commercial distress, have informed the Committee, "One cause of it is, that many of those parties have been dealing in railway shares. The capital which they ought to have kept in their business they have put out in expectation of realizing at a profit, but railway shares have become nearly unsaleable, and their capital has been locked up."

Although a distinction undoubtedly exists between the railroad debentures purchased by the Bank and the shares of railway companies, yet it is evident that the purchase of these securities by the Bank of England must have given a high sanction and an effective stimulus to those very undertakings which the Committee find afterwards referred to among the causes of the commercial distress.

SECT. VIII.—RATES OF DISCOUNTS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND AND THE BANK OF FRANCE COMPARED.

Several of the witnesses examined have drawn a comparison between the operations of the Bank of England and the Bank of France. The Governor of the Bank was asked, "Can you inform the Committee whether there was a corresponding variation, and to the same extent and degree, in the rate of interest at Paris in connection with the operations of the Bank of France?" and his reply was, "No, there was not the same variation."

It may be suggested, however, that this analogy is not accurate, as the transactions of the Bank of France are stated to be small, in comparison with those of the Bank of England. Such does not appear to be the case in respect to the amount of discounts. The Committee had on this subject the benefit of the experience and knowledge of the late Lord Ashburton,

whose loss the Committee have had reason to lament, in common with his friends and with his country. Lord ASHBURTON had stated,—

“The transactions of the Bank of France may be said to have varied very little indeed from the limits of four to five per cent. ; they never exceed five, and they have hardly ever been under four. Under all circumstances they have kept that equable rate of interest for their discounts and for their general transactions. I should state that the discounts of commercial paper by the Bank of France, so far from being insignificant, as has been intimated, are in reality very large. I take it, that, upon the average of years, the discount of commercial paper by the Bank of France is larger than the discount of commercial paper by the Bank of England.”

Lord ASHBURTON was then asked :—

“Will you explain a little more fully the statement you made as to the amount of discounts afforded by the Bank of France being larger than that afforded by the Bank of England, because the transactions of the two institutions certainly are not equal?”

Lord ASHBURTON's reply was :—

“If we look back to the returns, we see for a long time about the same amount of discounts of bills by the Bank of England,—2,800,000*l.*, 2,700,000*l.*, 2,800,000*l.*, 2,900,000*l.*, and so on. If you take the average of the last ten years, I think you will find the discounted bills larger in amount in Paris than here.”

It should be remembered that many of the events referred to as producing the commercial distress in England were common to France likewise. That country, also, had suffered from a great loss of food; she, too, had been compelled to become an extensive importer of foreign grain. The speculation and expenditure on railroads were likewise considerable in France. These disturbing causes were in a greater or lesser degree common to the two countries, but no restrictions analogous to those of the Act of 1844 cramped the operations of the Bank of France; and the contrast between the rate of discount and the interest for money was such as has been already stated.

SECT. IX.—ERRORS IN THE BANK MANAGEMENT IN 1846, 1847.

The Committee have shown what unexampled fluctuations in the rate of interest unfortunately occurred in 1847, and the causes to which those fluctuations are attributable in the judgment of many of the witnesses. In the minds of several of the parties examined, the conduct of the Bank itself, in the exercise of its discretion, has been on other grounds objectionable. For a considerable time the rate of discount was kept as low as two and a half per cent., the admitted motive being to employ profitably the reserve in the banking department, looking to it as bankers would do, when desirous of retaining a certain amount under discount. The Bank rates of discount in the autumn of 1846 continued at three and a half per

cent. till the 9th January, 1847; they were then raised to four per cent., and to four and a half per cent. on the 16th of January; whilst an adverse exchange had been in operation from the 14th of November, 1846, and large importations of grain were expected from America.

Of all the witnesses examined before the Committee Mr. LLOYD gives the most unreserved opinion with respect to the errors of the Bank management. His evidence on this point is so precise and definite that the Committee insert it at length, as deserving of particular attention.

“The course pursued by the Bank from January to April 1847, which I apprehend to have been extremely erroneous and detrimental to the public interest, was stopped only by the positive provisions of the Act; and if that system of procedure had not been stopped it must have ended in the most disastrous consequences. I think there is a very strong ground for charge against the Bank. In the beginning of January the total securities were 27,898,000*l.*, and on the 10th of April they were 31,700,000*l.* There was from January to April a very large increase in the total amount of advances by the Bank upon securities, notwithstanding that during that period there was a very serious diminution of its bullion. This includes the private securities, which are the more important to look at, because the advances upon Government securities are less within the control of the Bank. It is in regulating the advances upon the private securities that the discretionary power principally exists. The Bank continued to increase their advances upon private securities while there was a continuous drain upon the bullion.”

It should, however, be kept in mind, that by the separation of the two departments, as has been already shown, the Bank considered that the responsibilities under which they had previously acted were to a considerable extent removed; and that, as bankers, they were left to the mere consideration of their private interests. In the case referred to, it would seem manifest that the want of timely precaution could not fail to have aggravated the intensity of the subsequent pressure in April, to the great loss of the public and the embarrassment of the Bank itself. In no case is it more true than in the conduct of a bank, that not only should an appropriate remedy be adopted, but that it should be adopted at the fitting time, delay in most cases rendering more severe measures indispensable.

SECT. X.—QUESTION OF ADVANCES ON DEFICIENCY BILLS.

In their notice of the events of October 1847, the Committee have already called your Lordships' attention to the fortunate coincidence which at the October quarter prevented the affairs of the Bank from being further complicated, by any demand from the Treasury for advances. At that period no advances on deficiency bills were required. It is scarcely necessary to state that such advances are made at the commencement of the quarter, whenever the public balances are insufficient to meet the

demands on the Consolidated Fund, and that these bills are subsequently paid off out of the growing revenue as it is received at the Exchequer. There have been occasions on which the quarter's revenue has been insufficient to meet these engagements, which are in such case carried on further, additional bills being issued for supply services. On these advances the payment of the dividends, and consequently the maintenance of the public credit, may to a considerable extent depend; and any interruption to the punctual performance of these engagements would be attended with the most serious consequences. Their bearing on the operation of the Act of 1844, and on the commercial distress then existing, was sufficiently shown from the evidence of the Governor of the Bank, and of other witnesses.

The effect would have been, that, had deficiency bills been required in October 1847, the amount of accommodation then given to commerce must have been either considerably lessened in amount or limited in duration. The increased pressure and panic that such an operation could not have failed to create may easily be inferred from the preceding parts of this Report. But this question is so important, and is so vitally connected with the operation of the Act of 1844, that it is necessary to pursue it further. The first effect of such demand for Treasury advances is admitted by the Governor of the Bank, as appears by the question and answer 365.

It does not seem necessary to pursue the subject further, or to direct your lordships' attention more pointedly to all its important bearings. Even conceding that no peril to public credit would ensue from the state of things described, it is easy to suggest many cases in which an adherence to the strict rules of the Act of 1844 would be most difficult, if not impossible, except by resorting to measures which, in periods of internal drain, would seriously affect private credit, and cramp forcibly the operations of the Treasury and of the Bank of England.

SECT. XI.—LIMITATION OF THE AMOUNT OF SILVER BY THE ACT OF 1844.

The limitation of the amount of silver bullion which the Bank is entitled to hold under the Act of 1844 has been complained of by many of the witnesses, whether their opinions are favourable or adverse to the other provisions of the Act. Cases are stated in which the export of silver has been made, and may be made in future, the means of rectifying an unfavourable foreign exchange. Such is the opinion of the Governor of the Bank.

Your lordships will bear in mind that the legal standard of this country is gold, whilst that of the continent of Europe is silver. In times of deranged foreign exchanges it therefore seems obvious that the export of silver in preference to gold should be encouraged rather than impeded by any forced legislative restriction. This is the more important, as, from

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the Mint regulations of the United States, an unfavourable exchange with America is equalized by the remittance of gold; a fact exemplified in the efflux of gold in 1847, when 9,000,000*l.* in gold were withdrawn for export.

In expressing their entire concurrence in these opinions it is scarcely necessary that the Committee should observe that no question of alteration of standard is involved in them; nor do they countenance such an alteration of the law as would render the coined silver of the realm, depreciated as it is, compared with the mint price of silver, available, by tale, in payments beyond a restricted amount.

SECT. XII.—PUBLICATION OF THE BANK ACCOUNTS, INCLUDING THE RESERVE OF NOTES IN THE BANKING DEPARTMENT.

Several of the witnesses examined have attributed the pressure felt in 1847, and the panic which succeeded, to the publication of the accounts in the manner prescribed by the Act of 1844.

The danger apprehended arose in 1847, from the publication of an account of the Bank reserve when that reserve was unusually low; and to this publication, alarm, which, as it is shown, rapidly passed into panic, was traceable. The same effect might consequently be apprehended hereafter, under similar circumstances. This alarm and panic originated in the restriction which prohibited any aid being given from the issuing to the banking department, at a time when the former held a large amount of bullion, and when the foreign exchanges were favourable.

The suggestion made by the Governor of the Bank, of publishing the whole accounts with the exception of the reserve, appears wholly inadmissible. Such accounts must practically furnish the elements or data from which the amount of reserve may, with a greater or less degree of accuracy, be deduced or inferred. If the amount of reserve could thus be accurately calculated, the proposed remedy would be no corrective of the system complained of. If the amount of reserve were to be inferred inaccurately, such a proceeding would be an aggravation of the inconvenience rather than a safe or effectual remedy.

It would appear more in accordance with legislative wisdom to reconsider the rule itself, against which there can hardly be stronger presumptive evidence than the suggested necessity of concealing the consequences to which it leads.

SECT. XIII.—REMEDIAL MEASURES RECOMMENDED BY THE WITNESSES.

The Committee feel, in common with every witness examined, the duty and obligation of maintaining, at all times, the practical convertibility of the bank-note. This they consider to be the first and most essential object, which, in all discussions like the present, must be kept constantly in view, both by the legislature and by those who direct the banking

operations of this great commercial community. Upon the practical enforcement of this principle not only does public and private credit depend, but the whole industry of the productive classes, and the wages of labour. On this point therefore the Committee have the satisfaction to think that there can be no difference of opinion. The practical questions to be settled at present are, Whether this great benefit is attained with certainty? Whether it is attained by proper means? and, Whether the restrictions of the Act of 1844 are not attended with grievous and unnecessary evils of a collateral kind? Many of the provisions of that Act are, in the judgment of the Committee, as well as in the judgment of the great majority of the witnesses, judiciously adapted to the purpose for which they were framed. But an attempt to enforce by law, under all circumstances, one fixed and inflexible rule for the management of a national bank of issue seems inconsistent with the best written authorities, with the general principles of economical science, as well as with the testimony of many witnesses of practical knowledge and experience. It can hardly fail to be productive of most serious evils, more especially when a contraction of issues, indispensable in a state of adverse foreign exchanges, is rendered imperative, as it is by the Act of 1844, under circumstances which may be wholly opposita. It has been shown that an enlargement of the issues of the Bank, under a favourable foreign exchange, would frequently be expedient at times when, under the provisions of the Act, no such enlargement would be possible, and even in cases where by the Act a compulsory contraction would be enforced.

It is difficult, in the judgment of the Committee, to appeal to more demonstrative evidence on this subject than is to be found in the Treasury Letter of the 25th October. That Letter was a practical repeal, by an act of authority, of the restrictive clauses of the Act. It appears impossible at once to defend the restrictive provisions of this Act, and to justify the Letter, which in this respect abrogated, or at least suspended, those very restrictive provisions. The Committee consider that those restrictions materially aggravated the pressure, and produced the panic, of October, 1847. But even if those restrictions were originally defensible when enacted, their hold on opinion, as well as their authority in practice, have been materially impaired by the letter by which they were superseded,—by its acknowledged necessity, and by its undeniable success. The precedent is established, and its application will inevitably be called for, on other occasions; and it may so happen that the principle of relaxation will be applied under circumstances less urgent and less justifiable than those which occurred in 1847. The Committee are therefore of opinion that it is expedient for the legislature to provide specifically for the manner and the responsibility of relaxing these restrictions in times when it can be done consistently with the perfect convertibility of the note,—an obligation which should never be forgotten. That the contingencies under which a suspension of the restrictions of the Act will be called for and applied hereafter, are not

remote or improbable, is admitted even by those who defend the continuance of the Act in its integrity. Mr. Loyd evidently considers the events which rendered the Letter justifiable as likely to be of occasional recurrence, arising naturally out of the very framework and construction of the commercial system of England.

To leave these cases, when they do arise, to be dealt with by the irregular exercise of the mere authority of the Crown and its advisers, setting aside "once in five or six years," or even at periods more remote, the express provisions of a distinct statute, appears wholly inconsistent with that fixity and order which it is, or ought to be, the object of all law to secure. The evidence of Mr. Horsley Palmer and Mr. Gurney, as well as that of many of the other witnesses, is most material as illustrative of these truths.

Two suggestions have been made to the Committee: the one an absolute repeal of the Act of 1844; the other a continuance of the Act, accompanied by a power of relaxation. Believing that many of the provisions of that Act are judiciously adapted to secure the primary object of the convertibility of the bank-note, and viewing the great balance of evidence which has been given in favour of the second of these alternatives, it is to that proposition that the Committee are desirous of directing the attention of your lordships. It is true that to those who may have expected that the 7th & 8th Vict. c. 32 would effectually prevent a recurrence of cycles of commercial excitement and depression, the contrast between the years 1845 and 1847 must produce a grievous disappointment. To those who anticipated that the Act would put a check on improvident speculation, the disappointment cannot be less, if reliance is to be placed (as the Committee are confident it may) on the statement of the Governor of the Bank, and of other witnesses, that "speculations were never carried to such an enormous extent as in 1846 and the beginning of 1847." If the Act were relied on as a security against violent fluctuations in the value of money, the fallaciousness of such anticipation is conclusively proved by the fact, that whilst the difference between the highest and lowest rate of discount was in the calamitous years 1837 and 1839 but two and a quarter to two and three quarters per cent., the difference in 1847 rose to six and three quarters. If it was contemplated, that the number and the extent of commercial failures would have been lessened, the deplorable narrative of the Governor of the Bank, recording the failure of thirty-three houses comparatively in large business, in London alone, to the amount of 8,129,000*l.*, is a conclusive reply. If the enormous extent to which railroad speculation has been carried, be considered as an evil to which a sound system of banking could have applied a corrective, such a corrective has not been found in an Act, since the passing of which, during a period of three years, an increased railway capital of upwards of 221,000,000*l.* has been authorized to be raised by Parliament; and when the enormous sum of 76,390,000*l.* is stated, on high financial authority, to have been actually expended on railways in two years and a half. If the power of obtaining banking

accommodation on moderate terms, were considered to be promoted by the Act of 1844, it cannot be said that this important object has been attained, since it appears in evidence that in 1847, in addition to an interest of nine or ten per cent., a commission was also frequently paid, raising the charge to ten, twenty, or thirty per cent., according to the time which bills had to run. The Committee are fully aware that alternations of periods of commercial excitement and of discredit, of speculation and of collapse, are likely to arise under all systems of currency; it would be visionary to imagine that they could be averted altogether, even if the circulation were exclusively metallic. But it is on this account that greater care should be taken to avoid increasing an evil, perhaps inevitable, by any arbitrary and artificial enactments.

The Committee are of opinion, that the principle on which the Act of 1844 should be amended is the introduction of a discretionary relaxing power; such power, in whomsoever vested, to be exercised only during the existence of a favourable foreign exchange.

Several plans have been suggested by which such a relaxing power may be exercised, but they resolve themselves practically into three—a legalized authority vested in the Government; in the Government and in the Bank conjointly; or in the Bank of England alone. The objection obviously existing to the first of the propositions is, the danger that all governments are liable, more or less, to be influenced in such cases by political rather than by economical considerations. It may also be apprehended that the exercise of an undefined and extraordinary power would depend too much on the personal character or the political position of the Minister for the time being. The second proposition is open to other but equally powerful objections. A divided responsibility becomes frequently no responsibility at all. The Government might cast the responsibility on the Bank—the Bank on the Government, and in this conflict the interests of the public would be forgotten or defeated. A third proposal (which in the judgment of the Committee is preferable to either of the two first), namely, vesting this discretion in the Bank of England, cannot be disposed of without giving some consideration to the constitution of the Bank of England. The objections which have been often urged against the Bank, more especially if entrusted with a discretion like that now under consideration, are a want of permanence and of consistency derived from its system of periodical elections of Governors and Deputy Governors—the evil consequences of filling those high and important offices, as well as the appointments to the Committee of the Treasury, by a mere rotation of seniority—and the intimate connection subsisting between the Directors and the commercial world of London, which may cast on them a degree of pressure difficult, at times, to be resisted. It seems further to be apparent, from the evidence, that the immediate pecuniary interests of the proprietors as a trading company may at times supersede or control larger and higher considerations. This ought not to be. Whilst the Committee express this opinion, they

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must guard themselves from the supposition that they consider that the Bank ought to undertake or can perform functions which belong to the Legislature and to the responsible Government. The first duty of the Bank of England is, so to conduct its affairs as to secure means for the performance of all its engagements with integrity and good faith. Prudence and discretion, the application of scientific truth to assist, and, at times, to correct the inferences drawn from experience, should be its guiding principles; but no narrow views of the mere pecuniary interests of its proprietary should exclusively control its action. To the Bank of England Parliament has confided great privileges and exclusive powers; for the exercise of these powers the Bank is responsible. In these respects the Bank of England differs from an ordinary trading corporation; and, consequently, is bound always to keep in view the real and permanent interests of the commercial classes, and of that great community of which it forms a part. The true interests of the proprietors of Bank stock can never be prejudiced by being considered in connection with these larger principles.

The Committee have been informed that steps have already been taken by the Directors themselves to obviate some of these objections.

Mr. Cotton announces the determination of the Court to abandon the principle of election by rotation, and to recommend to the proprietors for election as Governor and Deputy Governor the Directors they consider best qualified for the situation.

It is also stated that in order to secure the services in the Committee of Treasury of a Director, the ordinary preliminary condition of having filled the chair was dispensed with when the health of the party rendered his appointment as Governor inexpedient. In the cases both of Mr. Cotton and Mr. Palmer, these gentlemen were re-elected to their offices for a double term where a continuity of action was required in consequence of the pending renewals of the charter. From these facts the Committee feel themselves warranted in entertaining a hope that whatever further amendments of system may be required both for the interests of the Bank and of the public will be favourably considered by the Directors and proprietors, even before the revision of the charter, when the whole subject would be open to the authority of Parliament. Recognising the ability, disinterestedness, and unimpeachable integrity of that great corporation, the Committee are desirous that any necessary changes should be made with the least disturbance of the present system, and with a preservation of the honourable position and the independence of the Bank of England. The Committee have received from Mr. G. C. GLYN a suggestion which they consider to be so important as to deserve attention. That suggestion is as follows:—

“If I were to offer any suggestion (which I should not have ventured to offer if it had not been asked from me by your lordships), I should prefer leaving the whole responsibility of the circulation in the hands of the Bank

of England. I do not think there is much advantage in a double responsibility divided between the Bank of England and the Government. But I consider it would be well that the Bank Court should have in it certain persons not elected by the proprietors, who should be appointed under Act of Parliament for a limited time, or in any other way which may be deemed advisable, not immediately by the Government or proprietors, and not removable by the Government, and that they should have, not an absolute veto upon the proceedings of the Bank Court, but that if they dissented from the majority their reasons for that dissent should always be submitted in writing, and that they should be laid before Parliament, if Parliament saw fit, from time to time. I think that the introduction of these commissioners and their protests and influence would exercise a very wholesome control upon the body of Governors, and at the same time would not deprive them of that power of which as representing the proprietors it would not be right that they should be deprived.

"Would you add to those alterations any regulations with respect to the management of the currency with a view to the exchanges, or to any other circumstances?—I should leave that to the Court and to those commissioners to determine as they saw fit from time to time.

"Do you consider that those commissioners should be persons not engaged in trade?—I would rather they were not engaged in trade. I think you might find people of experience enough not engaged in trade who were fit for the duty, but would not make it an absolute condition of eligibility.

"Do you mean that they should be appointed for life?—Not for life. It is impossible to know beforehand how far a man may be fit for a position of that sort, and therefore I would make the appointment for three years, or for some period, and renewable."

If the Committee considered that the Act of 1844, which they desire to see amended so far as its restrictive clauses are concerned, was essential to the practical convertibility of the bank-note, they would hesitate in recommending any change. But it should never be forgotten that the liability of the Bank consists in its deposits, as well as in its promissory notes. The legal obligation to discharge both is the same; the failure of either would be equally fatal. The protection given by the Act of 1844 is mainly given to the bank-notes, and in some degree at the risk of the deposits. This appears undeniable on comparing the reserve, in the third week of October, with the amount of private deposits. Had any unfortunate circumstance interfered with the power of meeting the latter engagements, or had not the Treasury Letter been written, there seems little doubt of the fatal consequences which must have ensued. Had it been impossible to pay the deposits, a discredit of the bank-note must have been the consequence. Nor can it be rationally questioned but that such a misfortune might have exposed to risk the convertibility of the bank-notes.

Before the Committee close their Report, which the extreme importance and complexity of the subject referred to them, as well as the value of the evidence taken, has rendered necessarily protracted and laborious, they feel it right to admit, that the conclusions to which they have come are opposed by the evidence of witnesses of ability and of experience, and entitled,

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on both accounts, to respect and consideration. The Governor of the Bank states that "nothing can have worked better than the Act of 1844 has done; and that during a period of extreme pressure that Act has preserved the convertibility of the note." This evidence is, it is true, applied to the issuing and not to the banking department; but, on a subsequent day, the approval of the same witness is given with greater distinctness. "I think the Act has worked so well," he observes, "that it is not worth the while of Parliament to discuss whether distress has been produced by the Act or not." Mr. S. J. Loyd states "that the Act had no effect whatever in aggravating the pressure. It protected the public from the additional evil, which would otherwise have occurred, of a failure in maintaining the convertibility of the notes, and the consequent complete destruction of our monetary system." Mr. George Norman states, "that both in spring and autumn 1844 the Act produced the effect of keeping things very much in their natural and legitimate course."

The Committee are far from giving these extracts as the full substance of the evidence given by the witnesses they have named. On the contrary, in that evidence there is much matter of great importance, which, for a clear understanding of the question, should be deliberately weighed and compared with the evidence which is conflicting, and which, in the judgment of the Committee, appears greatly to preponderate.

In conclusion, the Committee think it right to add, that, whilst they feel deeply the necessity of a sound system of legislation for the Bank of England, and for all other establishments entrusted with the privilege of issuing notes used as substitutes and representatives of the current coin of the realm, they are far from suggesting that it is upon laws, however wisely framed they may be, that reliance can or ought exclusively to be placed. The best banking system may be defeated by imperfect management; and, on the other hand, the evils of an imperfect banking system may be greatly mitigated, if not overcome, by prudence, caution, and resolution. In the confidence universally and justly placed in the Bank of England the fullest testimony is borne to the integrity and good faith with which its great transactions have been conducted; and the opinion of the Committee in this respect is best shown in their desire to see vested in the Bank a wider discretion than they possess under the Act of 1844,—a discretion which the increased knowledge produced by experience and discussion, and in which the Bank of England can hardly fail to participate, will enable them to exercise to the advantage of their own corporation, to their own honour, and to the permanent benefit of the public, and more especially of the commercial classes of England.

SECT. XIV.—EFFECTS OF THE ACTS OF 1844 AND 1845 ON SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.

The Committee have felt it their duty to examine witnesses connected with Scotch and Irish banks. As the great bulk of Scotch and Irish

pecuniary transactions are adjusted in reference to the London money market, so long as the bank-notes issued in the three parts of the empire are equally convertible on demand into the same coin, "the fluctuations of exchange between the countries will be generally limited by the price at which any given amount of bullion can be procured in the circulating medium of the debtor country and converted into the circulating medium of the creditor country, together with the insurances and charges of transporting it from the one to the other." It follows that any effects which the Act of 1844 has produced upon the London Market must have had a corresponding influence in Scotland and Ireland. To those countries, and to this extent, all the foregoing observations of the Committee apply.

But as regarding the effects of the Act passed in 1845 for Scotland, if the obligation which it imposes on the banks of that country to keep a stock of gold corresponding in amount with the excess of circulation beyond the maximum fixed by the banking returns be intended to guard against excess of issue, the Committee apprehend any such danger to be imaginary. Should any over-issue take place, as compared with the circulation of Great Britain, it would manifest itself in the altered state of the exchange with London, and would thereby be corrected. The effect of the enactment has been to compel the Scotch banks to keep an amount of capital in gold calculated at 900,000*l.*, which the habits of the Scotch do not seem to require for the purposes of circulation, and for which consequently there has not been any preference shown, nor any effective internal demand. Hence this capital is to a certain degree unproductive. Independently of the enactments in question, this capital might be invested by the Scotch banks in public securities, so far augmenting their profits, and the gold would either be absorbed into the circulation of England or would find its way into the coffers of the Bank of England.

As between bank and bank in Scotland, the system adopted for the regular exchange of their notes is a guarantee against any relative undue issue by separate banking establishments. That system is as follows: Each bank keeps a certain proportion of exchequer bills, which are denominated Edinburgh Exchange Exchequer Bills, and twice in each week the respective banks meet and retire their notes, when the balance is settled, if the amount be 1,000*l.* or upwards, by exchequer bills, if it be a lesser sum it is settled by a letter of credit on London. This system, which is a most ingenious and economical mode of settling banking balances, has lately been introduced into Ireland.

Should any bank have its quota of exchequer bills reduced by this system of exchange, it must purchase bills from the bank holding in excess, and pay the balance by letter of credit on London. Thus, every bank must be prepared twice a week to retire its excess of notes, and must keep funds in London for that purpose.

The Committee have already shown that, in relation to the more general question, even assuming the very improbable occurrence of a combined

contemporaneous and equal increase of issue on the part of all the Scotch banks, this would be checked by the action of the exchange on London.

On the other hand, supposing that there should ever arise the formidable danger of a discredit of the bank-note,—an event, however, which has never occurred,—there are manifest advantages in the more general diffusion of gold coin, as a security for convertibility, in Scotland and Ireland as well as in England. If this were not provided for, the difficulties of such an exigency would be considerably and locally increased, and the pressure on the Bank of England would be increased likewise.

No complaint seems to have arisen in respect to the operation of the Act of 1845 as regulating Irish banking.

And the Committee have directed the Minutes of Evidence taken before them, together with an index, to be laid before your lordships.

No. LXXIV.—COMMERCIAL DISTRESS.

First Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Causes of the recent Commercial Distress, and how far it has been affected by the laws for regulating the issue of Bank-notes payable on demand.

THE Committee was appointed on the 3rd December, 1847, and consisted of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Robert Peel, Mr. Cobden, Mr. Herries, Mr. Cayley, Mr. Labouchere, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Glyn, Mr. Home Drummond, Sir James Graham, Mr. Thomas Baring, Lord George Bentinck, Mr. Beckett, Mr. Alderman Thompson, Mr. Hudson, Mr. J. L. Ricardo, Mr. James Wilson, Mr. F. T. Baring, Lord John Russell, Mr. Spooner, Mr. Goulburn, Mr. Cardwell, Mr. Hume, Mr. Thorneley, Sir William Clay, Mr. Tennent.

The Committee reported as follows.

After referring to parties who gave evidence the report proceeds as follows:—

There has been a general concurrence of opinion amongst the witnesses examined before your Committee, that the primary cause of the distress was the deficient harvest, especially of the potato crop, in the year 1846, and the necessity of providing the means of payment in the year 1847, for the unprecedented importations of various descriptions of food which took place in that year.

Among other causes the deficient supply of cotton, the diversion of capital from its ordinary employment in commercial transactions to the construction of railroads, the undue extension of credit, especially in our

transactions with the East, and exaggerated expectations of enlarged trade, have been stated, by some of the witnesses, as having contributed to the same result.

With regard to some of the circumstances above referred to, provision has already been made by Parliament, and it must be obvious that others are beyond the control of legislative enactment.

Many of the witnesses, including the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England, have expressed their belief that earlier steps in the autumn of 1846 and the spring of 1847, on the part of the Bank of England, might have obviated the necessity for the more stringent measures which circumstances compelled the Directors to adopt in April, and might thus have prevented the alarm which was caused by those measures. This subject is one, in respect to which a wide discretion must necessarily be left with those who are charged with the management of the business of the Bank, and your Committee trust that this discretion will be exercised with due prudence, if similar circumstances should again occur.

An opinion appears to have been entertained by some persons, though not by the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England, that the Bank is released by the Act of 1844 from any obligation, except that of consulting the pecuniary interests of its proprietors.

It is true that there are no restrictions imposed by law upon the discretion of the Bank, in respect to the conduct of the banking, as distinguished from the issue department. But the Bank is a public institution, possessed of special and exclusive privileges, standing in a peculiar relation to the Government, and exercising, from the magnitude of its resources, great influence over the general mercantile and monetary transactions of the country.

These circumstances impose upon the Bank the duty of a consideration of the public interest, not indeed enacted or defined by law, but which Parliament in its various transactions with the Bank has always recognised, and which the Bank has never disclaimed.

It is unnecessary to impose such duty by law, as there can be little doubt that the permanent interests of the Bank are identified with those of the public at large.

That identity of interest gives both to the public and to the proprietors of Bank stock a deep interest in every measure calculated to ensure an enlightened administration of the affairs of the Bank.

Your Committee have learnt, therefore, with satisfaction, that the attention of the Court of Directors has been given to this subject, and that a change has been made by them, as to the selection of the Governor and Deputy Governor, calculated, in the opinion of your Committee, to improve the constitution of the governing body of the Bank.

They feel confident that the effect of this change, and the experience which has been acquired during the events of the last two years, will ensure to the public, in the future management of the Bank of England, greater

benefits from this national establishment than it has hitherto been the means of conferring upon the country.

Your Committee have received, with deep regret, from many witnesses, evidence of the extent of loss incurred by commercial houses in the course of last autumn, from an unprecedented combination of the circumstances above referred to, and seriously aggravated by the want of confidence which prevailed in consequence of the numerous failures, and which induced bankers and others to retain a reserve, both of gold and bank-notes, to a very great extent. It is to be observed, that this took place with a very large amount of notes in the hands of the public, exceeding, in the opinion of a witness most competent to form an opinion, by no less than 4,000,000*l.* "the actual requirements of the public at the time."

The feeling of alarm which prevailed appears to have been immediately removed by the issue of the Letter addressed to the Bank of England, on the 25th October, by the First Lord of the Treasury and the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The issue of that Letter was, no doubt, an extraordinary exercise of power on the part of the Government; but the House has decided that, in the peculiar circumstances of the period, they were justified in taking that step. It will be seen from the evidence of Mr. Cotton, the Governor of the Bank in 1844, that the possibility of circumstances arising, in which some extraordinary measures might be called for in consequence of a state of monetary crisis, was not unforeseen by the Government at the time when the Act of 1844 was passed.

The evidence which has been given as to the effects of the Act of 1844, has been contradictory. Its beneficial effects, as regards the issues of the country banks, have been admitted by many of the witnesses, and although some have suggested an alteration of its provisions, very few have contested the general principles on which it is founded.

Your Committee have had under their consideration, whether it is advisable that powers should be conferred by law upon the Government, to enable them to meet the occurrence of any circumstances which may call for extraordinary interference; but they have come to the conclusion that, looking to the impossibility of foreseeing what the precise character of the circumstances may be, and also what may be the measure best calculated to meet them, it is more expedient to leave to those with whom the responsibility of the Government may rest at the time, to adopt such measures as may appear to them best suited for the emergency.

Your Committee, therefore, after a careful review of all the evidence, are of opinion that it is not expedient to make any alteration in the Bank Act of 1844.

During the proceedings of the Committee it was moved by Mr. Hume "That in the opinion of this Committee the laws for regulating the issue of bank-notes payable on demand, have aggravated the

commercial distress in England in the year 1847. For this resolution there were 11 Ayes and 13 Noes, so it passed in the negative. For the resolution were—Mr. T. Baring, Lord G. Bentinck, Mr. Spooner, Mr. Herries, Mr. Cayley, Mr. Alderman Thompson, Mr. Hudson, Mr. Hume, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Glyn, Mr. James Wilson; and against it—the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir. James Graham, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, Mr. Cobden, Mr. Beckett, Mr. Goulburn, Mr. Cardwell, Mr. Labouchere, Mr. J. L. Ricardo, Mr. Thornely, Sir W. Clay, Mr. Home Drummond.

The witnesses examined were Messrs. Adam Hodgson, director of the bank of Liverpool; Charles Turner, merchant, Liverpool; Thomas Clutton Salt, lamp manufacturer, Birmingham; Philip Henry Muntz, merchant, Birmingham; Samuel Gurney, bill broker, London; John Horsley Palmer, Bank Director; Robert C. L. Bevens banker, London; Joshua Bates, (Messrs. Baring Brothers), London; James Morris and Henry James Prescott, Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England; William Cotton, Bank Director; Joseph Pease, Darlington; Robert Gardner, manufacturer, Manchester; Samuel Jones Loyd, banker, London; Thomas Tooke, London; John Taylor, London; and Thomas Birkbeck, banker, Yorkshire.

No. LXXV.—COMMERCIAL DISTRESS.

Second Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Causes of the recent Commercial Distress, and how far it has been affected by the laws for regulating the issue of Bank-notes payable on demand.

THE Committee as appointed on the 3rd December, 1847, reported as follows:—

1. Your Committee, in further prosecution of the inquiry entrusted to them, have examined several gentlemen connected with the mercantile and banking interests of Scotland, the Governor of the Bank of Ireland, and other gentlemen connected with the mercantile and banking interests of that country.

2. Your Committee submit the evidence of these gentlemen to the House, together with that of other witnesses who have been examined, in reference to an incidental point which has been raised regarding the effect upon the India trade of the system followed by the East India Company in making advances on goods hypothecated with them in India.

3. In the opinion of the witnesses from Scotland and from Ireland, no material effect has been produced upon the monetary or commercial affairs of those countries by the Acts of 1845, by which the issue of notes payable on demand in those parts of the United Kingdom is regulated.

4. Evidence has been given by some of the witnesses as to the effect both in Scotland and Ireland which they attribute to the Act of 1844, but as on this subject your Committee have already stated their views, they do not think it necessary to offer any further observations thereupon.

5. With regard to the Acts of 1845, your Committee are of opinion that it is not expedient to make any alterations in their provisions.

6. Your Committee submit in the appendix various accounts, in which much valuable information will be found on the whole subject of their inquiry.

Draft reports were submitted by Mr. Spooner and Mr. Hume. On the motion for reading a second time the Chancellor of the Exchequer's report, Mr. Hume's draft was put as an amendment, when the Committee divided, and there were 5 for the Chancellor of the Exchequer's, and 4 for the amendment. Ayes—the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, Sir James Graham, Mr. Cardwell; Noes—Mr. Herries, Mr. Glyn, Mr. Spooner, Mr. Hume.

The following amendment to paragraph 17 of the draft report as to the contradictory nature of the evidence on the operation of the Act of 1844, was moved by Mr. Cayley:—

“That the evidence of all the witnesses engaged in commercial undertakings (except the Deputy Governor of the Bank), is unanimous as to the disastrous effects of the Act of 1844. Four witnesses, indeed, out of 17, have defended the system on which that Act was founded; but of these four, one is generally believed to be the author of the system, another was the Governor of the Bank, consulted by the framer of the Act of 1844, and the remaining two are the present Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank. It appears, however, that the opinion of the Bank Directors is nearly balanced as to the successful working of the Act of 1844.”

For the amendment there were 8, and against it 12. The Ayes consisted of Lord George Bentinck, Mr. Spooner, Mr. Cayley, Mr. Alderman Thompson, Mr. Hudson, Mr. Hume, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Glyn.

The Noes comprised the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir James Graham, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, Mr. Cobden, Mr. Beckett, Mr. Cardwell, Mr. J. L. Ricardo, Mr. Thornely, Mr. James Wilson, Sir William Clay, Mr. Home Drummond.

The witnesses examined were Messrs. John G. Kinnear, merchant; James A. Anderson, banker, Glasgow; John M'Donnell, Governor of the Bank of Ireland; Robert Murray, Manager Provincial Bank of Ireland; Robert Bell, Manager of the City of Glasgow Bank, Edinburgh; James Bristow, Manager Northern Bank, Belfast; J. F. Macfarlan, Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, Edinburgh; W. P. Paton, merchant, Glasgow; and John D. Dickinson, Deputy Secretary of the East India Company.

No. LXXVI.—SUPERANNUATION.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 10th March, 1856, for

A Return of the Salaries and Emoluments on the 1st day of January, 1835, and on the 1st day of January, 1856, in the several branches of the Civil Service now subject to Superannuation Deductions, distinguishing in separate columns the rate of salary per head, and the numbers in each class in which either increase or decrease of salary has taken place. Similar Return for all such Political Offices as are usually held by Members of either House of Parliament. Similar Returns for the Diplomatic and Consular Departments, and Return of any general alterations of pay that have taken place since the 1st day of January, 1830, in those classes of the Post Office, Ordnance, and Navy Departments receiving Weekly Pay. (Mr. Rich.) (414.)

Offices.	1st January, 1835.		1st January, 1856.	
	Number of Persons.	Salaries.	Number of Persons.	Salaries.
		£. s. d.		£. s. d.
Treasury - - - -	77	30,266 0 0	71	30,000 0 0
Solicitor's Department, Treasury -	6	6,811 10 0	12	6,561 10 0
Privy Council - - - -	17	8,226 0 11	24	10,342 0 0
Board of Trade - - - -	24	8,981 17 8	82	26,000 0 0
Office for Registration of Joint Stock Companies - - - -	None.	...	8	2,090 0 0
General Register and Record Office of Seamen - - - -	None.	...	49	8,918 15 0
Home Office - - - -	35	14,733 13 4	38	13,470 14 0
Factory Office - - - -	12	5,500 0 0	21	10,170 7 10
Police Court, Metropolis - - - -	108	30,475 0 0	98	38,770 0 0
Metropolitan Police Office - - - -	11	3,770 0 0	17	6,533 12 0
Public Carriage Branch - - - -	9	775 0 0
Foreign Office - - - -	70	24,899 4 0	89	30,595 12 0
Colonial Office - - - -	47	15,168 5 0	52	18,439 7 6
Colonial Land and Emigration Office -	17	7,390 0 0
War Department - - - -	24	5,560 0 0
The (late) War Office - - - -	85	29,872 0 0	243	49,777 5 0
Commander-in-Chief's Office - - - -	19	4,801 15 0	31	7,744 2 5
Adjutant-General's Office - - - -	17	3,055 5 0	26	4,590 0 0
Recruiting Department - - - -	7	1,000 12 6	8	1,735 0 0
Quartermaster-General's Department -	18	2,176 7 8	26	3,748 0 3
Judge-Advocate-General's Office -	6	1,460 0 0	7	1,795 0 0
Army Medical Department - - - -	7	2,946 4 0	12	3,197 0 0
Commissariat - - - -	9	2,385 0 0	17	4,925 0 0
Army Clothing - - - -	16	4,140 0 0
Royal Military College - - - -	23	5,209 13 3	24	5,213 17 0
Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea -	16	273 3 4	52	2,663 19 2
Royal Hibernian Military School -	2	319 13 0	6	902 3 0
Ordnance - - - -	762	162,804 0 0	849	175,900 0 0
Ditto—not on the establishment -	15	2,107 0 0	105	10,652 0 0
General commanding in Ireland -	5	549 12 6	5	547 14 0
Qr.-master-Genl's Depart. in Ireland	4	599 13 4	7	1,345 0 10

Offices.	1st January, 1835.			1st January, 1856.		
	Number of Persons.	Salaries.		Number of Persons.	Salaries.	
		£.	s. d.		£.	s. d.
Deputy Adjt.-Gen.'s Office, Dublin -	9	990	14 1	9	1,388	5 0
Kilmainham Hospital -	36	2,310	14 5	18	1,362	10 10
Admiralty -	288	72,797	0 0	350	95,457	0 0
Navy Pay Office -	70	16,113	0 0	—	—	—
Transport Office -	18	6,043	0 0
Scientific Branch -	15	3,967	0 0	32	9,380	0 0
Dockyards at home -	205	56,100	0 0	257	65,910	0 0
Victualling yards at home -	32	7,944	0 0	34	9,156	0 0
Medical Establishments at home -	10	2,300	0 0	10	2,312	0 0
Naval yards abroad -	29	9,310	0 0	42	11,600	0 0
Victualling Establishments abroad -	11	3,470	0 0	14	3,784	0 0
Medical Establishments abroad -	4	540	0 0	5	933	0 0
Audit Office -	103	32,441	18 3	154	42,615	3 9
Royal Mint -	126	13,933	8 10	99	11,694	6 0
Paymaster's Office -	79	26,227	0 0	73	20,880	0 0
Exchequer -	28	6,280	0 0	17	5,290	0 0
Customs -	No aggregate amount.			No aggregate amount.		
Inland Revenue -	6,662	834,918	0 0	5,355	693,309	0 0
General Post-office, London -	241	56,296	5 0	743	136,887	0 0
" " Dublin -	67	12,154	11 8	137	24,804	10 0
" " Edinburgh -	41	7,408	0 0	93	17,503	0 0
Stationery Office -	37	5,192	2 0	78	11,042	10 0
Insolvent Debtors' Office -	16	5,345	15 8	16	7,483	8 10
National Debt Office -	31	8,230	0 0	40	11,897	10 0
Woods and Forest -	...	20,100	6 11	...	12,470	0 0
Offices in Scotland -	...	4,347	18 1	...	3,665	0 0
Chief Secretary's Office, Ireland -	53	13,530	6 1	41	9,403	10 0
Board of Public Works, Ireland -	15	4,580	11 4	49	15,299	10 10
Paymr. of Civil Services Office, Ireland -	22	7,935	8 0	23	6,545	0 0
Constabulary Office, Dublin Castle -	21	3,347	8 0
Constabulary, Ireland -	34	10,780	0 0
General Register Office, Dublin -	7	1,632	0 0
Charitable Donations and Bequests for Ireland -	2	277	10 0	3	1,020	0 0
Inspector-General of Prisons Depart. -	2	1,107	14 0	6	1,402	0 0
Govt. Prison Office, Dublin Castle -	9	2,772	18 4
Office of Lunatic Asylum -	5	2,096	0 0
Dublin Metropolitan Police -	12	3,370	0 0

These returns show, that in the period between 1835 and 1856, there were 3,886 persons upon whom a total reduction of salary was made of 101,012*l.*, or an average of 26*l.* per head; and 2,790 persons to whom a total increase of salary was granted of 91,106*l.*, or an average increase of 32*l.* 10*s.* per head.

The salaries of political offices in 1835 amounted to 114,010*l.*, and in 1856, to 109,125*l.*

The salaries of the consular service in 1855, 88,320*l.*, and in 1856, 126,815*l.*

No. LXXVII.—SILVER AND GOLD WARES.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to Inquire into the Offices for Assaying Silver and Gold Wares in the United Kingdom.

THE Committee consisted of Messrs. Wilson, Liddell, Stanley, Hankey, George Alexander Hamilton, Spooner, Brand, Wilkinson, William Ewart, Bentinck, Peacocke, Muntz, Dunlop, and Masterman. The committee was appointed on the 19th February, 1856; and examined the following witnesses:—Messrs. William Garnett, Inspector-General in the Board of Inland Revenue; James Garrard, of the Goldsmiths'-hall, London; John Lowe, Prime Warden of the Goldsmiths' Company, Chester; Joseph Green, assayer; Samuel Johnson Robert, solicitor, Chester; C. J. Reed, manufacturer of silver plates, Newcastle; Walter Prideaux, Clerk of the Goldsmiths' Company, London; Josiah Sharp, Deputy Warden in the Assay Office; James Williams, silversmith, Bristol; William Thomas Maynard, Assay Master, Exeter; George Ferris, Warden of the Company, Exeter; John Stuart, watch-case maker, Liverpool; Samuel Quillam, watch manufacturer, Liverpool; Frederic Claudet, assayer, London; John Stone, silversmith, Exeter; Jeremiah Fuller, Assay Master Goldsmiths'-hall, London; Arthur Ryland, solicitor, Birmingham; William Westwood, jun., assayer, Birmingham; George Richard Elkington, silver wares dealer; John Thomason, silver worker, Birmingham; Henry Edmund Watson, Clerk of Guardians, Sheffield; W. F. Dixon, Magistrate, West Riding, Yorkshire; Ralph Samuel, Liverpool; James Paterson, Assay Master, Glasgow; David C. Rait, gold and silver worker, Glasgow; Henry William Field, Assay Master of the Royal Mint; George Twycross, Assay Master, Dublin; and Edmund Johnson, silversmith, Dublin.

The Committee reported as follows:—

1. Your Committee have examined a large number of witnesses from the principal assay offices throughout the United Kingdom.

2. The existing assay offices are ten in number, and are established at the following places, setting them down in order according to the amount of assaying performed at each office:—London, Birmingham, Sheffield, Exeter, Chester, Glasgow, Dublin, Edinburgh, Newcastle-on-Tyne, York.

3. The state of these offices, as to management and efficiency, differs widely. Your Committee find that those offices in which a larger amount of assaying is performed are conducted in a satisfactory manner; while the smaller offices are, generally speaking, in an inefficient condition, and do not afford proper security to the public for the accuracy of their work.

4. Your Committee are of opinion that the inferior condition of the smaller offices may partly be accounted for by their imperfect constitution, and by the absence of effective regulations, existing in the larger offices, for testing the accuracy of assays, and partly by the more limited income which the

smaller offices derive from assaying, and the consequent want of funds to place them in a superior condition.

5. In the progress of their inquiry it has been made manifest to your Committee that the laws regulating the assaying of gold and silver are in a most confused and unsatisfactory state. These laws are scattered throughout a multitude of statutes, some of which are of very ancient date. Almost every assay office is established and regulated by statutes or charters exclusively applicable to itself. Thus the assay offices at London, Birmingham, Sheffield, Chester, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Dublin, are regulated by separate statutes differing more or less widely in their provisions.

6. Your Committee are of opinion that the practice of assaying is calculated to afford protection to the public against fraud, and ought to be maintained, and they regard it also as a convenient mode of collecting the revenue.

7. Your Committee strongly recommend that the several statutes by which the assay offices are now governed should be repealed, with a view to removing the anomalies and confusion of the existing law by consolidating into one statute all the provisions requisite for the establishment and regulation of assay offices throughout the United Kingdom, whereby their constitution may be placed upon a sound footing, and full security afforded to the public for the correctness of assays in all offices without exception.

8. Your Committee further recommend that, among other provisions of such a statute, power be given to open new offices at any place in the United Kingdom, where it can be shown to the satisfaction of the Treasury that the manufacture of gold and silver wares requires such establishment for the convenience of trade, and where the income derived therefrom would be sufficient to defray the expenses; and to close any office where the amount of work is insufficient to support it, or where the work is inefficiently performed.

9. Your Committee do not apprehend any serious difficulty in framing a comprehensive measure, by which all assay offices shall be placed upon a uniform and well-regulated system, applicable alike to England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The following items are gathered from the evidence of witnesses.

GOLD AND SILVER ASSAYING.

Some quantity of gold is obtained from silver, whilst gold contains silver. Californian gold contains sometimes 40 per cent. of silver. Australian gold is invariably found alloyed with silver, and sometimes with traces of copper. Mr. H. W. Field described as follows the process of assaying gold: first of all, a pound weight—the “assay pound”—is placed in a known portion of lead with a certain prescribed quantity of pure silver, because the gold containing alloy, being in the larger proportion, would shelter the alloy

in the acid, therefore the particles of gold are to be dispersed; that is done by adding more pure silver; it is then passed through the furnace; the lead, by oxidation, removes the principal copper, or any other alloy but silver. After it is taken from the furnace it is rolled, flattened, and subjected to acid; then it is washed several times, annealed, and brought to the scale, and the difference between the weight it went in and the weight when it comes out shows the loss, or the quantity of pure gold that remains; but compensations are obliged to be made for loss during the operation. The nitric acid takes away the silver and leaves the pure gold. The silver is not now extracted from the bar gold in the Mint.

ASSAY PROCESS.

Silver bullion is assayed by what is called the wet principle. In the cupellation there is always a loss in the assay, for which it is impossible to make with certainty an exact correction. The operation is very simple; it consists in fusing the alloy with a certain amount of lead in a cupel or bone-ash vessel; the baser metals are oxidized, and sink with the oxide of lead into the cupel, leaving a bead of silver. The amount of silver in the alloy is determined by the weight of this bead. There is also much inaccuracy in the cupelling process, the loss of silver varying in amount in different experiments. The wet method consists in determining the fineness of an alloy, the amount of a standard solution of common salt which is required to precipitate completely the silver from its solution. By the old process the alloy must be weighed and placed in the cupel with a certain quantity of lead, and when the lead is completely absorbed, the bead of silver is weighed. By the humid way, the same weighing of the alloy is requisite; it is then put into a small bottle and dissolved in nitric acid, and to this solution is added the standard solution of salt. The wet process is not applicable to gold.

GOLD AND SILVER DUTIES.

The quantity of gold plate on which duty was paid by each assay office in the United Kingdom in the year ended 5th January, 1855, was 10,898 ounces and 19 dwts., and the total duty 9,264*l.* 11*s.* 8½*d.* The amount of duty levied on English plate is a check to the use of silver articles. The duty is 6*s.* 6*d.* The Mint silver is purchased in the markets and is assayed and reported on before it is coined. The total quantity of silver plate on which duty was paid in the year ended 5th January, 1855, was 1,000,299 ounces 15 dwts., and the total duty was 75,022*l.* 10*s.* 0½*d.*

STANDARDS.

Two standards of gold and silver are marked. One standard of gold is of 22 carats, and the other of 18 carats. Of silver one standard is 11 oz. 10 dwts., and the other 11 oz. 2 dwts., and the plate of each standard

is marked with a different mark. Gold of 22 carats is marked with a crown and the figures 22, as denoting the standard. That of 18 carats is marked with a crown and the figures 18. The silver of the standard of 11 oz. 10 dwts is marked with a lion's head erased, or a figure of Britannia (the latter at Birmingham and Sheffield only); and the mark of the 11 oz. 2 dwts. standard is a lion passant, each standard having a distinct and separate mark.

Those standards have been altered, as regards gold wares, by a recent Act of Parliament, the 17th and 18th of Victoria, chapter 96. The standards for gold are 9, 12, 15, and 18 carats.

In the United States of America the most saleable standard is 14 carats. The English mark is constantly imitated. In France there are many different standards. The silver of which plate is chiefly manufactured in France is of a superior quality to our standard, being '950, or 11 oz. 8 dwts. of fine silver in the pound troy; consequently containing 6 dwts. more of fine silver in the pound than the English, which has 11 oz. 2 dwts. of fine silver in the pound. The French likewise use a silver of '800, or 9 oz. 12 dwts. in the pound; consequently this is 1 oz. 10 dwts. worse than the English standard, 9 oz. 12 dwts. $+ 1 \text{ oz. } 10 \text{ dwts.} = 11 \text{ oz. } 2 \text{ dwts.}$, being the English standard. The gold which is usually manufactured in France is '750, or equal to our 18 carats, and none of a worse quality is used; but there are two standards of a higher quality, viz., '920, being '004, or a shade better than our 22 carats, and '840, or about 20 carats. Thus the gold manufactured in France may be said to be 22 carats, 20 carats, and 18 carats; in England, 22 carats, 18 carats, 15 carats, 12 carats, and 9 carats. In France the standard for both gold and silver coin is '900; thus both contain more alloy than the English—gold in the proportion of 10 to 12. The silver is likewise worse than ours by 6 dwts. in the pound.

The French gold coin is lower in quality and in standard than the English. The gold in France is coined at '900; in 1,000 parts there are 900 parts of gold, and in England 916 $\frac{2}{3}$.

PLATED GOODS.

Plated goods are not ascertained by any general marks; most of the makers have a private mark of their own. On spoons and forks, and some few articles, they have marks somewhat similar to the assay mark, but still it is not the same mark.

JEWELLERY.

Articles of jewellery are seldom marked. Rings are stamped.

No. LXXVIII.—THE FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM
OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND FOR THE FINANCIAL YEARS
1855-6, ENDED 31st MARCH, 1856.

[*Presented to Parliament pursuant to Act 42 Geo. III. c. 70, s. 4; 56 Geo. III. c. 98, s. 22; and 17 & 18 Vict. c. 94, s. 2.*]

1. Cash account showing the whole of the financial operations of the Lords Commissioners of her Majesty's Treasury in connection with the income and expenditure of the United Kingdom between the 1st April, 1856, and the 31st March, 1856.

The total amount received was, 133,261,389*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*, and the total amount paid, 127,660,768*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*, leaving a balance in the Exchequer on the 31st March, 1856, at the Bank of England, 4,319,573*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.*; at the Bank of Ireland, 1,281,047*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* Total, 5,600,621*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.*

2. Accounts of the income of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the United Kingdom respectively, in the year ended 31st March, 1856. The gross receipt was, Great Britain, 65,277,776*l.* 0*s.* 1½*d.*; Ireland, 6,773,356*l.* 19*s.* 3½*d.*; United Kingdom, 72,051,132*l.* 19*s.* 4½*d.*: the repayments, allowances, discounts, drawbacks, bounties, &c., 1,498,987*l.* 17*s.* 6½*d.*; net receipts within the year, 70,552,145*l.* 1*s.* 10½*d.*, which, with balances and bills outstanding on 31st March, 1855, 2,619,636*l.* 13*s.* 11½*d.*, form a total income of 73,171,781*l.* 15*s.* 9¾*d.* The payments into the Exchequer amounted to 69,595,819*l.* 1*s.* 0*d.* The balances and bills, and advances repayable 31st March, 1856, 2,774,690*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* Total discharge of the income, 73,171,781*l.* 15*s.* 9¾*d.*

The net public income and expenditure for the year ended 31st March, 1856, was, income, 65,704,490*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*; expenditure, 88,428,345*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*; excess of expenditure over income, 22,723,854*l.* 5*s.* 1*d.* The excess of expenditure over income was, in the year ended 31st December, 1855, 21,141,183*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*; year ended 30th September, 1855, 15,514,973*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*; and year ended 30th June, 1855, 11,901,331*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.* The balances of public money remaining in the Exchequer at the close of the year, 31st March, 1856, was, 5,600,621*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* The heads of revenue were, balances and bills outstanding, 2,619,636*l.* 13*s.* 11½*d.*; customs, excise, stamps, taxes, income and property tax, post-office, Crown land, and miscellaneous, 70,552,145*l.* 1*s.* 10½*d.* Total, 73,171,781*l.* 15*s.* 9¾*d.* The expenditure comprised, public debt, 28,112,824*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; civil list, courts of justice, &c., 1,723,419*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; army, navy, ordnance, &c., 58,592,100*l.* 12*s.* 0*d.*; revenue departments, 4,100,505*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*; payments to the Exchequer, 588,095*l.* 11*s.* 4¾*d.* Total, 93,120,945*l.* 18*s.* 7¾*d.*

The net produce of the revenue of customs of the United Kingdom in the year ended 31st March, 1856, was, 23,213,797*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*, of which 5,802,086*l.* was derived from tea; 5,006,698*l.* 1*s.* from tobacco and snuff;

5,222,530*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.* from sugar and molasses; 2,472,649*l.* from spirits, colonial and foreign; 1,856,123*l.* from wine; 587,636*l.* from coffee; 353,065*l.* from corn, &c.

The net produce of the inland revenue was 42,991,283*l.* 15*s.* 8½*d.* The excise produced 17,632,138*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*, of which 7,877,829*l.* from spirits; 6,676,349*l.* malt; 1,399,673*l.* licenses; 1,031,808*l.* paper, &c., &c. The stamps produced 7,063,610*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.*, of which the duty on legacies and successions was, 1,699,346*l.*; on fire insurance, 1,280,441*l.*; deeds and other instruments, 1,218,737*l.*; probates of wills and letters of administration, 1,151,526*l.*; bills of exchange, 444,599*l.*, &c.

The taxes produced 18,295,535*l.*, of which the land tax was, 1,157,525*l.*; the assessed taxes, 1,978,552*l.*; and the property and income tax, 15,159,457*l.*

For the service of 1856, a loan of 16,000,000*l.* was created per Act 18 Vict. c. 18; every contributor towards raising the said loan was entitled for every 100*l.* principal money contributed and paid, to 100*l.* three per cent. Consolidated Annuities, and an annuity of 14*s.* 6*d.* for 30 years; the dividend on the former to commence from the 5th January, 1855, and on the latter from 5th April following. The amount paid was, 15,995,200*l.*, and 4,800*l.* was retained by the Bank of England as their allowance for receiving the loan. It is provided by the said Act that a sum of 1,000,000*l.* should be charged on the Consolidated Fund, and to be applied by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt for the redemption of the capital created by the loan. The first payment to be made the 1st April, 1858.

A loan of 5,000,000*l.* was also created per Act 19 Vict. c. 6. Every contributor towards raising the said loan was entitled, for every 100*l.* principal money contributed and paid, to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* Three per Cent. Consolidated Annuities, the dividend to commence from 5th January, 1856. It is provided by the said Act that a sum of 250,000*l.* should be charged on the Consolidated Fund and be applied by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt for the redemption of 5,555,416*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*, the capital created by the loan. The first payment to be made 1st April, 1858. The charge for management of this loan, 2,500*l.*, was paid by an issue out of the Consolidated Fund. Exchequer Bills to the amount of 3,000,000*l.* were also funded by the Act 19 Vict. c. 5. Each subscriber in the books opened at the Bank of England towards funding Exchequer Bills charged on the aids or supplies, dated in Dec. 1854, and March, June, and August, 1855, was entitled, for 100*l.* principal money contained in such Exchequer Bills; to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* Three per Cent. Consolidated Annuities, the interest to commence from 5th January, 1856. Each subscriber was also allowed, instead of depositing Exchequer Bills at the Bank of England, to pay money in lieu thereof upon payment of 5*s.* per annum; and he was allowed the same amount of stock for his 100*l.* 5*s.* as those that subscribed Exchequer Bills. The capital created was

3,333,250*l*. The amount paid in money has been applied in the redemption of unfunded debt, and the premium received amounted to 1,924*l*. 10*s.*, and discount on bills purchased below par amounted to 261*l*. 18*s.* The charge for management (1,200*l*.) was paid by an issue of the Consolidated Fund.

Another loan was made on Exchequer Bonds and Bills for 7,000,000*l*. per Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 130. The sum of 1,000,000*l*. was raised under this Act by Exchequer Bonds. For every 100*l*. Exchequer Bond the sum of 97*l*. 15*s.* 6*d.* in money was received, to be paid off at the expiration of six years, and the interest to commence from the 8th November, 1855, at the rate of 3*l*. 10*s.* per cent. per annum. The sum of 6,000,000*l*. under this Act was raised by Exchequer Bills chargeable on the supplies of the next session of Parliament.

The payment made in respect to the public funded debt in the year ended 31st March, 1856, was, for the interest and management, 23,205,392*l*. 13*s.* 2*d.*, including interest on the Government debt to the Bank of England 330,453*l*., and to the Bank of Ireland 92,076*l*. 18*s.* 4*d.*, and management of the debt for the year ending 5th January, 1856, 92,911*l*. 0*s.* 9*d.*; terminable annuities, 3,863,907*l*. 0*s.* 9*d.*; unclaimed dividend, 173,240*l*. 17*s.* 9*d.*

The interest paid on Exchequer Bills and Exchequer Bonds was 870,283*l*. 17*s.* 10*d.* The sum appropriated to the Civil List in the year ended 31st March, 1856, was 396,457*l*. 10*s.*

The annuities and pensions paid out of the Consolidated Fund amounted to 340,491*l*. 3*s.* 6*d.*, including annuities to the royal family, 151,788*l*.; pensions for judicial services, 38,371*l*. The salaries and allowances, 161,731*l*. 18*s.* 11*d.* The salaries and pensions of the diplomatic service, 147,659*l*. 7*s.* 8*d.* Sums paid to officers of courts of justice, 493,219*l*. 3*s.* Miscellaneous services, including interest and sinking fund on Russian-Dutch Loan, 183,860*l*. 16*s.* 8*d.* During the year 350,000*l*. was advanced for the purchase of bullion for coinage, of which 250,000*l*. was repaid, and 1,893,927*l*. 10*s.* 11*d.* for public works, including 1,000,000*l*. Sardinian loan. Of the sum advanced for public works, 995,248*l*. 17*s.* 4*d.* was repaid. Loans were also advanced for various objects, such as baths and wash-houses, lunatic asylums, Thames Tunnel, workhouses, emigration, &c., to the extent of 12,781,558*l*. 7*s.* 1*d.*, against which there were received and paid to the Exchequer, 10,709,756*l*. 5*s.* 8*d.* The balance outstanding, principal and interest, 4,029,239*l*. 3*s.* 5*d.*

Further sums of money were advanced from the Exchequer for the promotion of various national objects, for public works and employment of the poor, &c. The actual issue from the Exchequer up to 1st April, 1855, was 20,325,191*l*. 8*s.* 11*d.*; remissions, 2,531,405*l*. 15*s.* 4*d.* The advances issued before 1st April, 1855, were 17,793,785*l*.; between 1st April, 1855, and 31st March, 1856, 292,306*l*. 13*s.* 11*d.*; total issues, 18,086,092*l*. 7*s.* 6*d.* The total amount repaid was 9,965,387*l*. 17*s.* 11*d.*

In the year ended 31st March, 1856, 30,030*l*. 3*s.* 10*d.* of capital stock

was placed in the hands of the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, and the total sum received and paid, 26,799*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.* The total amount of unredeemed funded debt on the 31st March, 1856, was 779,634,125*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.*, bearing an annual charge of 27,555,821*l.* 4*s.* 9½*d.* The increase of capital, and charge between the 31st March, 1855, and 31st March, 1856, was 23,666,876*l.* 0*s.* 3*d.* capital, and 854,801*l.* 8*s.* 0½*d.* charged. The unfunded debt was, Exchequer Bills 21,182,700*l.*, with interest on the same, 805,303*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.* Exchequer Bonds, 7,000,000*l.*, interest, 245,000*l.*

NO. LXXIX.—RATING OF MINES.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the Law and Practice with respect to the rating of Mines.

THE Committee was nominated on the 30th May, 1856, and consisted of the following:—

Messrs. Kendall, Michael Williams, Deedes, George Cavendish, Child, Bouverie, Hutchins, and Phillips, Colonel Douglas Pennant, Mr. Ridley, Viscount Monck, Mr. Spooner, Mr. Hussey Vivian, and Mr. Littleton.

The Committee reported that they have entered late in the session upon an inquiry large and complicated in its nature, embracing the question of rating throughout the whole of the mineral districts of England and Wales; and have not been able to extend the inquiry beyond the districts of Cornwall, Devon, and Derbyshire. They have, therefore, confined themselves to reporting the evidence taken before them, and they would recommend the re-appointment of the Committee in the next session of Parliament.

The witnesses examined were, Messrs. W. G. Lumley, Assistant Secretary to the Poor Law Board; Richard Davey, Edmund Marriott, W. A. Thomas, of Cornwall; N. S. Stokes and P. P. Smith, solicitors, Truro; Thomas Darke, solicitor, Penzance; John Taylor, junior, civil engineer; W. Richards, J. Moscom, miners; J. H. Meredith, Michael Williams, M.P., Warrington Smyth, T. J. A. Robartes, M.P., Edmund Carlyon, J. Secombe, Robert Taylor, C. B. G. Sawle, M.P., Deeble Boger, Sir Joseph Paxton, M.P., Philip Hubbersty, Robert Bromley, William Wyatt, Thomas Broomhead, Thomas Elie, and T. Field.

The evidence comprised the following points:—

ASSESSMENT.

Mr. Lumley stated that the system adopted respectively in Ireland and in England, and even in various parts of the country, is different. In some places the overseers ascertain the rent paid, and take that as the fair value of the colliery; in other places, they take the amount of the coal that is raised. In many cases it is very probable that the real value of mines is not assessed; formerly, in Cornwall, the lords and in turn the adventurers

were assessed from the rate-book of the overseers. The rates were considered as part of the charge as much as the cleansing the ore or the expense of bringing it to sale. In Derbyshire the gross estimate of the rental is taken, and on houses one-sixth is deducted from it. On land one-twelfth is deducted. In Mr. Lumley's opinion an equally full assessment in the case of mines when the corpus of the estate is destroyed, and in the case of land where the annual produce is affected, may not be equitable, but is the only practicable mode. Mr. Marriott suggested that there should be an appeal from the rate in the same way as all other property. Mr. Meredith pointed out the difference between land and mining property in the fact of the corpus of the latter being gradually exhausted.

MINERS.

The mining population of Cornwall is stated to be 40,000. A petition was presented to the House of Commons signed by 1,000 miners against the rating of mines. Miners are divided into three classes: first, those who have been cautious of their earnings, and who have raised up dwellings which contribute to the support of the poor. Second, those who contribute towards the clubs; and third, migratory miners, who have no families, and go from one mine to another in different parts of the country; and all over the world. Miners generally support themselves. They are a very independent set of men. The wages of miners in Derbyshire are from 15s. to 17s. a week, but the net earning by the workers in small mines is about 10s. a week. The wages of miners are very fluctuating; it depends upon the state of the mine in which they work. The common labourer is not the real labourer in the Cornish mine; the labourer in a Cornish mine is a sort of adventurer, he takes a pitch to work at what is called a tribute, that is, so much in the pound being paid to him, so that his gain depends upon the quantity of ore that he discovers in the period of his take, which may be two months. The profits are not at all a question with him; he is paid so much in the pound upon the ore raised, after allowing certain expenses. A miner is liable to much casualty and accidents; he gets his constitution undermined at a much earlier age than the agriculturist. The average of the miners' life is rarely above 40 years. In Derbyshire, however, the miners are anything but unhealthy or short-lived.

ADVENTURERS OR OCCUPIERS.

In the opinion of Mr. Lumley and Mr. Boger, though the adventurers run the risk and though the owner only may receive a profit, still on the existing principle of assessment to the poor-rate it is preferable that the former should pay the rate. Mr. Darke thought that the occupier of the under-ground and not the lord is the proper person to be rated.

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Mr. Stokes was of a different opinion; first, because the adventurers are a very fluctuating body; and second, because a tax on the adventurer would have the effect of checking speculation.

MINES.

There are 14 mines producing a majority of the copper in the counties of Cornwall and Devon. Wheal Bassett and Wheal Buller are both very profitable; Carn Brea has been a very profitable mine, and is so still; Devon Great Consols is a very profitable mine; Kingston Downs is not very profitable, but it is, to a certain extent, profitable; North Bassett is a very profitable mine; Phoenix is a very profitable mine; South Wheal Frances is a very profitable mine: The United Mines is not a very profitable mine, but it has very large sales; West Bassett is a very profitable mine, and West Caradon is a very profitable mine.

Mining property is exceedingly fluctuating in its nature. The difference between the rateable value of fixed property, such as land and houses, and the rateable value of a mine, may be considered to be represented by the difference between the number of years' purchase of a mine, and the number of years' purchase of those fixed properties. Land being taken at 30 years' purchase, and a mine being taken at 3 years' purchase, the one may be considered 10 times more valuable than the other in regard to its permanency. No mine can exist profitably beyond a depth of 300 to 350 fathoms. The body of a mine exists between the grass and 300 fathoms, and every 10 fathoms that is exhausted is a 30th part of the mine gone.

No. LXXX.—ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN THE YEAR 1855.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE real value of the total imports and exports in 1854 and 1855 was—imports, 1854, 152,591,513*l.*; 1855, 143,660,335*l.*; and exports, 1854, 115,833,704*l.*; and 1855, 116,701,041*l.* The official value of imports was in 1854, 124,338,478*l.*, and in 1855, 117,402,366*l.* The amount of real value of merchandise imported from foreign countries was in 1854, 118,439,488*l.*, and in 1855, 110,071,766*l.*, and from British possessions, in 1854, 34,152,025*l.*, and in 1855, 33,588,569*l.* The declared real value of exports of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom was, in 1851, 74,448,722*l.*, and in 1855, 95,688,085*l.* And of foreign and colonial produce, in 1854, 18,648,978*l.*, and 1855, 21,012,956*l.*

Computed Real Value of the total Imports from each Foreign Country and British Possessions.—1855.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

United States of America, including California - - -	£25,741,766	Brought forward	£91,582,668
Prussia - - - - -	10,242,862	Brazil - - - - -	2,273,819
France - - - - -	9,370,477	Chili - - - - -	1,925,271
China, including Hong Kong	8,746,590	Western Coast of Africa	1,516,729
Spain and Spanish Colonies, including Cuba and Porto Rico	8,043,238	Two Sicilies - - - - -	1,281,940
Holland, and Dutch Colonies	6,705,595	Norway - - - - -	1,099,642
Hanse Towns - - - - -	4,826,322	Buenos Ayres - - - - -	1,052,033
Egypt, (Ports in the Mediterranean)	3,674,682	Austrian Territories - - -	1,019,028
Peru - - - - -	3,484,288	Tuscany - - - - -	747,957
Denmark - - - - -	3,087,009	Mecklenburgh Schwerin - -	730,281
Sweden - - - - -	2,825,171	Greece - - - - -	731,515
Belgium - - - - -	2,540,092	Other countries below £500,000, including New Granada, Hungary, Southern Russia, Hanover, Morocco, Sardinia, Mexico, &c.	6,110,888
Turkish Dominions - - -	2,294,571		
Carried forward - - -	£91,582,668	Total -	£110,071,766

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

British East India, exclusive of Singapore and Ceylon - - -	£12,668,774	Brought forward	£24,357,244
British North America - - -	4,494,451	Ceylon - - - - -	1,474,251
British West India Islands	3,978,278	Cape of Good Hope - - -	949,640
Mauritius - - - - -	1,723,807	Singapore - - - - -	615,738
British Guiana - - - - -	1,491,934	Tasmania, Van Diemen's Land	508,015
Carried forward - - -	£24,357,244	Other Colonies - - - - -	5,683,681
		Total	£33,588,569

Declared value of the total Exports of the Produce of the United Kingdom, and computed real value of the Exports of Foreign and Colonial Produce and Manufactures to each country and British Possession.

TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

	British Produce.	Colonial and Foreign Produce.	Total.
United States, and California - - -	£17,318,086	£746,677	£18,064,763
Hanse Towns - - - - -	8,350,228	3,347,540	11,697,768
France and French Colonies - - -	6,048,409	4,410,966	10,459,375
Turkish Dominions - - - - -	5,639,898	419,119	6,059,017
Holland, and Dutch Colonies - - -	5,115,978	2,612,209	7,728,187
Brazil - - - - -	3,312,728	129,116	3,441,844
Spain and Spanish Colonies - - -	2,783,413	183,208	2,966,621
Belgium - - - - -	1,707,693	2,239,514	3,947,207
Egypt - - - - -	1,454,371	117,235	1,571,606
Chili - - - - -	1,330,385	56,688	1,387,073
Peru - - - - -	1,285,160	60,278	1,345,438
Prussia - - - - -	1,100,021	2,016,650	3,116,671
Syria and Palestine - - - - -	946,604	29,533	976,137
Two Sicilies - - - - -	921,220	175,221	1,096,441
China, exclusive of Hong Kong - -	888,679	12,472	901,151
Sardinia - - - - -	853,916	255,705	1,109,621
Western Coast of Africa - - -	839,831	219,827	1,059,658
Buenos Ayres - - - - -	742,442	27,096	769,538
Austrian Territories - - - - -	717,713	223,120	940,833
Tuscany - - - - -	620,307	214,864	835,171
New Granada - - - - -	588,935	19,782	608,717
Mexico - - - - -	585,898	28,975	614,873
Sweden - - - - -	545,384	279,515	824,899
Denmark - - - - -	1,327,979	301,564	1,629,543
Norway - - - - -	487,400	260,624	748,024
Other Countries - - - - -	3,622,532	319,192	3,941,724
	£69,135,210	£18,706,690	£87,841,900

To BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

	British Produce.	Colonial and Foreign Produce,	Total.
	£	£	£
British India - - - - -	9,949,154	404,321	10,353,475
British Australia - - - - -	5,413,540	846,565	6,260,105
British North America - - - - -	2,802,368	193,194	2,995,562
British West India - - - - -	1,389,992	136,022	1,526,014
Gibraltar - - - - -	829,354	76,831	906,185
Singapore - - - - -	672,964	18,335	691,299
Malta and Gozo - - - - -	625,823	76,490	702,313
Van Diemen's Land - - - - -	616,957	68,187	685,144
Cape of Good Hope - - - - -	791,313	45,657	836,970
Channel Islands - - - - -	468,078	133,044	601,122
British Guiana - - - - -	421,398	35,189	456,587
Other Possessions - - - - -	2,577,934	272,431	2,844,365
	<u>£26,552,875</u>	<u>2,306,266</u>	<u>28,859,141</u>
	£97,184,726	21,012,956	118,197,682

Computed Real Value of the Principal Articles imported.

Cotton, Raw, Yarn - - -	£21,406,260	Brought forward	£102,792,960
Sugar, Raw, Refined - - -	10,975,817	Butter - - - - -	2,049,522
Corn, &c. - - - - -	17,508,620	Coffee - - - - -	1,691,621
Wool, and Woollen Manu- facture and Yarn - - -	7,730,427	Animals living - - -	1,677,407
Tea - - - - -	5,225,411	Cheese - - - - -	1,027,774
Silk raw, thrown, and manu- factured - - - - -	7,778,205	Copper ore and Regulus - -	1,433,693
Wood - - - - -	8,730,494	Copper unwrought - - -	1,133,227
Guano - - - - -	3,137,160	Hemp - - - - -	1,973,511
Flax and Tow - - - - -	3,335,349	Indigo - - - - -	1,629,055
Wine - - - - -	3,072,747	Rice - - - - -	1,666,085
Seed - - - - -	3,635,535	Spirits - - - - -	2,153,171
Oil - - - - -	5,524,212	Tobacco - - - - -	1,540,725
Hides - - - - -	2,085,550	Skins and Furs - - -	941,855
Tallow - - - - -	2,647,173	Madder, Madder root, &c. -	784,269
		Oil Seed Cake - - -	814,655
		Other Articles - - -	20,350,805
Carried forward	£102,792,960	Total	£143,660,335

Declared Value of the Principal and other Articles of the Produce of the United Kingdom exported.

Cotton Manuf. and Yarn - -	£34,779,141	Brought forward	£78,594,194
Wool, Woollen Manuf. and Yarn	19,730,992	Beer and Ale - - -	1,398,885
Linen Manuf. and Yarn - -	5,050,994	Machinery and Mill Work -	2,243,166
Iron, Unwrought and Wrought	8,881,472	Silk thrown and manuf. -	1,524,343
Hardware and Cutlery - -	2,959,610	Tin unwrought and Plates -	1,263,580
Haberdashery and Millinery	2,682,537	Earthenware and Porcelain	1,000,738
Coals - - - - -	2,505,326	Apparel - - - - -	989,207
Copper wrought and unwrought	2,004,122	Other Articles - - -	8,673,972
Carried forward	£78,594,194		£95,688,085

The total value of foreign merchandise transhipped at ports in the United Kingdom in 1855 was 3,582,666*l*. The number and tonnage of British vessels, sailing and steam, entered and cleared from and to foreign countries and British possessions in 1855 was as follows:—*Entered*, British, 22,787 vessels, 5,270,792 tons; foreign, 18,193 vessels, 3,680,447 tons; total entered, 40,980 vessels, 8,951,239 tons. *Cleared*, British, 23,095 vessels,

5,648,940 tons; foreign, 19,502 vessels, 3,889,291 tons; total, 42,597 vessels, of 9,538,231 tons. Total entered and cleared, British and foreign, 83,577 vessels, of 18,489,470 tons.

No. LXXXI.—COAL MINES.

Reports of the Inspector of Coal Mines to her Majesty's Secretary of State to December 1855.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

MR. MATTHIAS DUNN reported on the inspection of coal mines in the counties of Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland.

During the half year ending the 31st December, 1855, the number of fatal colliery accidents was as follows, 18 in shafts, 11 explosions, 27 falls of stone and coal, 23 sundries; total 79. Mr. Dunn appended a paper on boiler explosions, which concludes with the following safeguards for the prevention of such.

1. It would appear that tube boilers are more liable to accidents from overheating than ordinary boilers, owing to the small quantity of water above the tube, whilst the most intense heating takes place when short of water, and practice shows that little or no advantage is derived from the application of a tube.

2. Every boiler safety-valve should be duplicated by one upon the connecting steam pipe, or an indicator, that upon the steam pipe being equal in area to all the other safety-valves.

3. As very much depends upon the well working of the float, it should either be duplicated or a check apparatus applied upon some other plan.

4. The bottom of each feed pipe should be furnished with a flap or horse-foot valve, to guard against priming.

5. The sludge-pipe of the boiler should be made to discharge in some place visible to the fireman, as there is reason to believe that the imperfect closing of the said pipe has frequently led to unexpected diminution of the boiler water, and consequent explosion.

6. It seems highly desirable that the water gauge employed in the locomotive engines should also be applied to ordinary boilers, which gauge exhibits the state of the water within the boiler. It consists of a glass tube with stop-cocks.

7. I cannot close these remarks without recommending the adoption of a fusible plug of the most esteemed alloy, such plug being placed at the upper part of the tube where such is employed, or in the side of the boiler where most exposed to the flue fire, such plug to be punched out and renewed from time to time to guard against the effects of oxydation.

Mr. John J. Atkinson reported for the southern portion of the county of Durham from 31st December, to 1st March, 1856. The total number of accidents during that period was 8.

Mr. Joseph Dickinson, F.G.S., reported for the Lancashire, Cheshire,

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and North Wales district for the year ending 31st December, 1855. During the year there was a diminution both of accidents and of lives lost. They comprised 34 miscellaneous, 46 in shafts, 56 falls of roof, and 29 explosions of fire-damps; total 165 against 178 in 1854. The number of lives lost was 199 in 1855 against 299 in 1854.

Mr. Charles Morton reported for the counties of York, Derby, Nottingham, Leicester, and Warwick for the year ending 30th June, 1855. The number of lives lost during the year was 108 against 113 in 1854. In the half year from the 30th June to the 31st December there were 62 lives lost.

Mr. Thomas Wynne reported for the district comprising Staffordshire, Worcestershire, and Shropshire for 1855. The number of accidents was 189, and the number of lives lost 227, of which 38 were explosions of fire-damp, 116 falls of coal and roof, 49 falling shafts, and falling substances in shafts, and 24 miscellaneous cases.

Mr. Herbert Mackworth reported for the south-western district for 1855. The number of accidents causing death in 1855 was 181, of which 105 were from falls in mine, 27 in shafts, 17 miscellaneous underground, and 9 on surface. The number of deaths ensuing 200. The average number of accidents in the five years 1850-1855 was 134, and the average number of deaths 172. The number of deaths per annum per 1,000 persons employed 44, and per million tons of coal raised 17·2. In the appendix of Mr. Mackworth's report a comparison is instituted of the accidents and deaths in 1851 to 1854 in Great Britain. Those for 1854 were as follows:—

DISTRICT.	Explosion of Fire-damp.	Falls of Roof and Coal.	In Shafts.	Miscellaneous underground.	On Surface.	Total.	Number of Colliers employed per Census 1851.	Total Accidents per 1,000 persons employed.	Deaths per 1,000 persons employed.
Scotland - - -	10	44	28	4	6	92	32,961	2·5	4·5
Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland - -	9	43	25	28	16	121	42,437	2·2	3·3
Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Warwickshire, and Leicestershire	12	48	48	12	4	124	33,195	2·2	4·1
Lancashire, Cheshire, and North Wales -	26	57	58	22	15	178	36,243	3·7	5·0
Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Worcestershire	17	110	60	11	9	207	32,449	6·4	7·5
South Wales, Monmouth, Gloucester, and Somerset -	13	68	34	17	7	139	38,932	3·5	3·3
Total - - -	87	370	255	94	57	861	216,217	3·23	4·5

DISTRICT.	Tons of Coal produced.	Fatal Accidents per Million tons of Coal produced.	Deaths per Million Tons of Coal produced.	Explosions of Fire damp.	Falls of Roof and Coal.	In Shafts.	Miscellaneous underground.	On Surface.	Total.
Scotland - -	7,448,000	12.3	13.9	16	46	32	4	6	104
Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland - -	16,307,615	7.4	7.7	11	43	27	28	16	125
Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Warwickshire, and Leicestershire -	11,174,670	11.1	12.	14	50	50	16	4	134
Lancashire, Cheshire, and North Wales -	11,010,000	16.2	27.1	129	59	74	22	15	299
Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Worcestershire	8,580,000	24.1	26.8	22	122	65	19	9	230
South Wales, Monmouth, Gloucester, and Somerset -	9,992,366	13.1	15.3	18	69	42	17	7	153
Total - -	64,512,651	13.3	16.2	210	389	290	99	57	1,045

Mr. Thomas Evans reported for the South Wales district.

Mr. Robert Williams reported for Scotland. The number of accidents in 1855 was 68, viz. 16 miscellaneous, 26 shafts, 19 falls of roof, and 7 explosions. The quantity of coal raised in Scotland during 1855 is estimated at 7,650,000 tons, being an increase of 202,000 tons over the previous year, giving an average of one death by accident for every 112,500 tons of coal raised, whereas the average for 1854 was one death for every 82,285 tons raised.

Mr. Higson, Mr. Brough, Mr. Hedley, and Mr. Alexander made also brief reports.

No. LXXXII.—STATISTICAL TABLES RELATING TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, COMPILED FOR THE MOST PART FROM THE OFFICIAL RETURNS OF THE RESPECTIVE COUNTRIES. PART III.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

HAMBURG.

THE population of Hamburg in 1852 was 158,775, of whom 73,543 males and 85,232 females. There were in that year 5,655 living births, and 377 still births; total, 6,032. 1,632 marriages, and 5,435 deaths. The revenue in 1852 was 387,458*l.*, and the expenditure 368,789*l.* For the

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year 1855 the revenue was estimated at 416,448*l.*, and the expenditure 441,976*l.* The revenue is divided into ordinary and extraordinary. In 1852 the ordinary revenue was land and fire tax, marks current 643,000; excise, 1,209,215; customs, 1,076,156; stamp duties, 783,409; tolls, 291,860; ground rent, 172,605. The extraordinary—extra loans and taxes, 73,606; land tax for fire loan, 1,422,621; and 464,475 additional for fire rates. The public expenditure was—Ordinary, 291,822 for members of the senate; 537,890 military; 166,180 police; 517,325 harbour expenses; 453,313 buildings; 402,576 charitable institutions; and 1,581,142 interest and expenses of public debt. Extraordinary expenditure—1,887,096 expenses for the fire loan. The public debt in 1852 was 4,990,031*l.*, of which 1,970,231*l.* the old debt, and 3,019,800*l.* fire loan.

The number and tonnage of vessels which belonged to the port of Hamburg in 1855 was 448 vessels, of 159,663 tons. The number of vessels entered in 1855 was 4,593, of 309,002 lasts of 3 tons; and cleared 4,562 vessels, of 309,984 lasts of 3 tons. The value of the cargoes entered in 1855 was 18,233,635*l.*, and cleared 10,687,586*l.* The total value of imports and exports was, in 1846—imports, 21,124,929*l.*; exports, 20,729,405*l.* In 1855—imports, 39,641,864*l.*; exports, 38,041,620*l.* The imports in 1855 consisted of provisions, centners 7,164,142, value marks Bco 122,686,390; raw materials, centners, 24,404,458, value M.B. 193,544,410; manufactures cent. 1,198,349, value M.B. 136,304,210; specie and bullion, cent. 8,533, M.B. 76,023,180. Total, cent. 32,775,482, M.B. 528,558,190, 39,641,864*l.* The exports consisted of provisions, cent. 5,873,504, M.B. 112,759,120; raw materials, cent. 13,204,877, M.B. 187,318,050; manufactures, cent. 1,099,338, M.B. 126,306,640; specie and bullion, cent. 9,134, M.B. 80,837,790; total, cent. 20,266,853, M.B. 507,221,600, 38,041,620*l.*

LUBECK.

The area of Lubeck and suburbs is 82,824 acres, and the population in 1853, 54,166. There were in 1853, 1,608 births and 1,469 deaths. The budget of the public revenue and expenditure for 1855 was—revenue, 58,877*l.*; expenditure, 68,500*l.* There belonged to the port of Lubeck on the 1st of January, 1855, 70 vessels of 6,398 lasts of 2 tons. In 1855 there were entered 972 vessels of 55,371 lasts, and cleared 958 vessels of 54,246 lasts. The value of imports in 1855 was 3,744,281*l.* In 1853 the Lubeck Sea Insurance Society insured property to the amount of 21,823,524 marks, at the rate of 2·19. It paid 427,830 marks for losses. The profit was 49,175 marks.

BREMEN.

The area of Bremen is 96 square miles, and the population in 1852 was 85,000. In 1855 there belonged to Bremen 264 vessels of 140,418 tons.

In 1855 there were entered 2,557 vessels, of 199,223 lasts of two tons, and cleared 2,674 vessels, of 215,213 lasts. The value of cargoes entered was 4,423,881*l.*, and of cargoes cleared, 4,130,175*l.* The total value of imports was, in 1855, 8,875,829*l.*, and of exports 8,154,053*l.*

HOLLAND.

The area of Holland is 12,608 English square miles, and the population on the 31st December, 1854, was 3,238,753. In 1854 there were born 41,446 males and 40,346 females. In 1853 there were 3,374 schools, 7,027 teachers, and 392,161 scholars. In 1855 the public revenue was 6,108,272*l.*, and the expenditure 6,145,055*l.* The public debt was 99,342,569*l.* In 1855 there belonged to Holland 2,230 vessels, of 275,927 lasts of two tons. There were built and registered 178 vessels of 26,197 lasts. There were entered with cargoes 7,788 vessels, of 1,303,450 tons, and in ballast 469 vessels, of 81,093 tons; and cleared with cargoes 4,242 vessels, of 820,126 tons, and in ballast 4,203 vessels, of 633,544 tons. There were also entered with cargoes 1,193 steam-vessels, of 349,920 tons, and in ballast 138 steam-vessels, of 57,049 tons; and cleared with cargoes 1,359 steam-vessels, of 403,785 tons, and in ballast 19 steam-vessels, of 6,233 tons. The total imports in 1855 were 28,551,505*l.*, and the exports 26,171,089*l.* The total value of imports for transit, and afterwards exported, in 1855, was 8,064,383*l.*

In 1854 the produce of Holland was, in imperial quarters, wheat, 557,859; rye, 1,249,292; buckwheat, 457,312; barley, 521,406; oats, 1,062,132; peas, 72,070; beans, 213,159; potatoes, 3,619,594; flax, 131,722 cwts; tobacco, 59,308 cwts. There were in 1854, 234,193 horses, 1,144,953 cattle, 856,266 sheep, 239,733 pigs, and 101,222 goats.

HOLLAND—JAVA AND MADURA.

The area of Java is 513,366 English square miles. The population, in 1853, was 10,290,000. The amount of duties received in 1854 was 669,660*l.* The number of vessels entered in 1854 was 2,348, of 172,837 lasts of two tons; and cleared, 2,490, of 177,981 lasts. The value of imports in 1854 was 3,359,017*l.*, of which the value of merchandise was 2,823,112*l.*, and of specie 535,905*l.* The value of exports, 6,070,463*l.*, viz., merchandise 5,688,378*l.*, and specie 382,085*l.*

NO. LXXXIII.—REPORTS ON THE PARIS UNIVERSAL EXHIBITION.
PART II AND III.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

Mr. WARRINGTON SMYTH, M.A., F.G.S., reported on mining and metallurgical products.

Coals.—Among the coal-producing countries of the world Britain takes the undoubted lead. The coal produce of the United Kingdom in 1854

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was given by Mr. Hunt at 64,661,401 tons; viz., 47,421,651 tons in England; 9,643,000 tons in Wales; 7,448,000 tons in Scotland; and 148,750 tons in Ireland. This represented at the average price on the spot a value of 14,975,000*l.*, and involved the direct employment of about 220,000 persons, in no fewer than 2,397 collieries. In France the amount extracted in 1852 was 49,039,259 metric quintals, or 4,900,000 tons, in 286 mines, giving employment to 35,381 persons. At present the production is 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 tons. The quantity consumed in France was, in 1852, 79,585,200 metric quintals. To make up the deficiency, France purchases from her neighbours 31,000,000 metric quintals of coals, principally from Belgium. In Belgium the annual production of coals amounts to 8,000,000 tons. In Prussia the quantity raised in 1854 was 9,324,623 English tons of mineral fuel. In Austria the annual produce of coals is 200,000 tons. In Spain coal and lignite 2,425,500 quintals, and coke 488,500 quintals. The report contains important information on Belgian safety-lamps, and on the invention of the *Fahrkunst*, or an apparatus for raising men from mines.

Pig and Wrought Iron.—The report gives a history of the British iron manufacture. At first iron was smelted with charcoal. The method of smelting iron by coal was opposed both by masters and by men. In 1740 the production of British iron had sunk to 17,350 tons, made in 59 furnaces, and then the use of fossil fuel began to be largely applied. Three great improvements have since that time originated in this country: 1st. The improvement of the steam-engine by Watt, as adapted to the working of mines and the blowing of the furnaces. 2nd. The invention, by Mr. Cort, of the cheap process of manufacturing wrought iron by *puddling* and subsequent *rolling*. 3rd. The application of the hot blast, first introduced by Mr. Neilson at furnaces in the neighbourhood of Glasgow. The progress of the manufacture in Great Britain was as follows:—In 1740, 17,350 tons of iron; 1788, 70,000 tons; 1800, 180,000 tons; 1825, 600,000 tons; 1830, 678,000 tons; 1839, 1,248,781 tons; 1851, 2,500,000 tons; and 1854, 3,069,838 tons, the produce of 555 furnaces. The make of Scotland in 1830 was 37,500 tons; 1840, 241,000 tons; 1850, 630,000 tons; 1854, 796,600 tons. In France the production of iron amounts to about 700,000 tons. In Prussia the quantity produced in 1853 was 4,099,932 cwts., and in the Zollverein, including Prussia, 6,126,457 cwts. In Belgium the annual amount is 200,000 tons, and the value of iron produced 30,000,000 frs. In Austria the quantity produced is estimated at 225,000 tons, and that of bar iron at 150,000 tons. In Sweden the amount produced in 1850 was 4,011,304 cwts. of pig, from 220 furnaces. In Spain the annual amount produced is, bar iron 575,400 cwts., cast iron 161,200 cwts. In Italy the quantity of iron at Rio, in Elba, 60,000 tons. The conclusions arrived at in the report are as follows:—In magnitude of production and lowness of price we are at present unrivalled, and the task for the ironmaster in future will be to endeavour, by scientific treatment of his subject, to

produce a superior article at the same, or at a less expense. Our materials, practically inexhaustible, require, many of them, more skilful handling; our workmen need to be guarded against strikes and improvidence; and the greater part of our managers, energetic though they be, would be none the worse men for a better training in the principles of the operation which they conduct.

Copper.—The total produce of copper for 1854, in Great Britain, is given at 23,073 tons, value 2,331,804*l*. Sweden produces about 2,000 tons copper per annum; the United States, 3,000 tons. Of tin, the oldest mineral product of England, there are produced 8,747 tons; of lead, there are produced 90,000 tons of ore, and 64,000 tons of lead; of silver, the produce in Norway is to the value of 47,000*l*. per annum. In Spain, 173,890 marks, at 190 reals the mark. Austria yielded, in 1853, silver, 120,547 marks; gold, 6,292 marks; lead, 93,368 cwts.; copper, 45,265 cwts.

Mr. William Fairbairn, C.E., F.R.S., and President of the Jury for Class VI., reported on machinery in general. The report treats of—1st, the minerals of different countries, including the various useful ores and other raw products, with their geographical positions, comparative abundance, and richness; and 2nd, the mechanical agencies by which these products are converted into articles of utility, comprehending the mechanism employed in manufacture generally. The report first institutes a comparison of the mineral resources of Great Britain and other countries, especially of France, America, Prussia, Austria, Belgium, &c. As to manufactured iron, the French are stated to be superior in large forging. Prussian steel is superior to British.

Malleable Iron.—The Prussians excel in the manufacture of the thinner and finer descriptions of plate. The French are superior in the manufacture of wrought iron joists. A careful review of the machinery of the Paris Exhibition gives particulars of steam engine and steam machinery, stationary engines, locomotive engines, marine engines, hydraulic engines and machines, machinery for the manufacture of cotton, silk, flax and wool, flour-mills, special machinery and apparatus for workshops, including machines used in the preparation of timber, in mining operations, reaping machines, thrashing machines. Mr. Fairbairn concludes by observing that the working classes of France and Germany are before us in the higher branches of industrial art; that the quality of our pig iron is inferior to that of other countries; that our architects are behind those of other countries, and have not availed themselves of the use of iron in construction to the extent they might have done; that our machinery for the production of the textile fabrics is much superior to that of any other country; that we have made much progress in mechanical engineering; that in the construction of mill work, this country stands unrivalled; that in the manufacture of tools for workshops we are also unequalled, though not so in the lighter descriptions of machinery and instruments of precision; and that, with the exception of

reaping machines, in which America excels, our agricultural implements, including those for working plastic materials, are superior to those of most countries.

The Rev. Robert Willis, M.A., F.R.S., and Vice President of the Jury for Class VII., reported on machinery for woven fabrics.

This report gives an interesting account of various kinds of machines, such as hand-loom and their appurtenances, hosiery frames, lace frames, and sewing machines; and amongst which there was one exhibited by Mr. Singer, of New York, by which 800 stitches per minute might be obtained.

Mr. Alfred Taylor, F.G.S., reported on general metal works.

The report commences with the iron manufacture. The production of pig iron in all countries, as given by Blackwell, is 6,000,000 tons—viz., Great Britain 3,000,000 tons, France 750,000 tons, United States of America 750,000 tons, Prussia 300,000 tons, Austria 250,000 tons, Belgium 200,000 tons, Russia 200,000 tons, Sweden 150,000 tons, various German states 100,000 tons, other countries 300,000 tons. If we compare the countries which chiefly produce iron for the last 20 years, Mr. Wörn states that Great Britain increased, in 1850, 244 per cent., the United States, in 1850, 171 per cent., France, in 1846, 141 per cent., Russia, in 1849, 1851, 20 per cent., German Customs Union, in 1850, 60 per cent., Austria, in 1850, 130 per cent., Belgium, in 1850, 217 per cent., Sweden, in 1850, 51 per cent., and Norway, in 1841, 1845, 62 per cent. The report gives much information on the effects of protective duties on iron in France, and shows that the causes of the want of progress in the production have been—1, the revolution of 1848; 2, want of railroads; 3, apathy among manufacturers; 4, unfavourable sites formerly chosen for works; 5, the tenure of property and the system of carrying on works by paid managers; 6, the interference of Government with the affairs of the miner; 7, the ancient custom of using wood and charcoal; and 8, the absence of banking accommodation. A critical review of the position of Prussia, as a metal-producing country, follows. The restraining influence of the Government is visible in that industry. Little or no competition exists either for labour or for orders, for a close combination of the whole trade, both in Rhenish Prussia and in Silesia, has been established. The Swedish Government has always taken a great interest in the development of the iron industry. It has lately abolished the feudal rights and privileges of the nobility, who had enjoyed previously certain preferences as ironmasters, and the iron trade was left to be supplied with its fuel in the open market. Until very lately the exportation of pig iron was prohibited, in order to encourage the manufacture of bar iron; in Sweden this law is now repealed, and pig iron can be either exported or imported by payment of a duty of 12s. 6d. per ton. In Russia the manufacture of sheet iron has progressed the most. Notwithstanding extensive protection, as no iron can be imported by sea, and the duty by land on pig iron is 600 per cent., the production of iron in Russia is only

8·7 lbs. Russ., and the consumption 9·7 lbs. Russ. per inhabitant, whereas in England the production is 231, and the consumption 138·4 lbs. Russ. per inhabitant. In Belgium the production of iron has increased considerably. In the United States the production of iron is also on the increase, but the consumption of iron per man is greater even than in England. The consumption in 1854 was estimated at 1,324,773 tons, of which 805,000 tons was the make in the States, and 500,000 tons imported from Great Britain.

With regard to Steel, the production of cast and shear steel in Great Britain in 1856 was estimated at 680,000 tons. The steel consumed in France has continued for 18 years to be four-fifths of that consumed in Great Britain. The iron used in France was, in 1835, a little over a third of that used in this country. It increased in France in 18 years to nearly half the quantity worked up in Great Britain. The total value of copper raised in 1854 was 2,331,804*l.* 3*s.* 0*d.* The production, consumption, and reduction of copper, from the ore in different countries for 1846 was given by M. Le Play as follows:—In Great Britain, copper annually raised, 15,800 tons; consumption, 10,600 tons; copper annually smelted, 28,600 tons. France raised 30 tons, consumed 9,200 tons, smelted 700 tons; Russia raised 3,900 tons, consumed 2,000 tons, smelted 3,900 tons; Austria raised 4,500 tons, consumed 2,600 tons, smelted 4,500 tons; Sweden and Norway raised 2,200 tons, consumed 400 tons, smelted 2,100 tons; German Association raised 1,500 tons, consumed 5,400 tons, smelted 1,500 tons; Turkey in Europe and Mediterranean States raised 3,100 tons, consumed 6,600 tons, and smelted 2,800 tons; America, particularly Cuba and Chili, raised 16,600 tons, consumed 6,100 tons, smelted 5,900 tons; Oceania, Australia, New Zealand, and Asia, raised 2,400 tons, consumed 8,300 tons; Japan raised 2,400 tons, consumed 1,200 tons, smelted 2,400 tons. Total raised, 52,430 tons; consumed, 52,400 tons; and smelted annually 52,400 tons. The following return of the comparative tonnage of the ships belonging to different countries shows how inconveniently the French smelter is situated, since he can only receive his ore at the low duty when carried in the ships belonging to his own country, the probability being that only one out of twelve vessels sailing from any particular port is a French vessel, while the total tonnage of French vessels is only one-eighteenth of the whole mercantile navy afloat. Great Britain and Colonies possessed in 1850, 34,281 vessels, of 4,232,962 tons; the United States in 1851, 3,772,439 tons; France, 1850, 14,354 vessels, 688,130 tons; Norway 1853, 4,893 vessels, 454,856 tons; Holland, 1850, 1,793 vessels, 390,910 tons; Spain and Colonies, 1850, 7,606 vessels, 361,401 tons; Greece, 1850, 3,970 vessels, 264,981 tons; Prussia, 1849, 1,531 vessels, 265,320 tons; Austria, 1849, 6,083 vessels, 259,583 tons; Russia (Finland excepted), 1849, 1,512 vessels, 251,000 tons; Sweden, 1853, 2,826 vessels, 249,440 tons; Denmark, 1852, 4,701 vessels, 245,947 tons; two Sicilies, 1850, 10,368 vessels, 221,379 tons; Finland, 1849, 1,375 vessels, 159,379 tons; Sardinia, 1850, 3,467 vessels, 159,263 tons; Hamburgh, 1853, 408 vessels, 123,882 tons.

Sir David Brewster, K.H., F.R.S., Vice-President of Jury for Class VIII., reported on certain optical and other instruments arranged as follows:—The telescope, achromatic microscopes, optical apparatus for lighthouses, stereoscopes, kaleidoscopes, photographic cameras, optical apparatus for physical researches, and instruments for scientific instruction.

Dr. Neil Arnott, Member of the International Jury for Class IX., reported on warming and ventilating.

Captain Francis Fowke, Royal Engineers, reported on naval construction.

M. Lenoux Arnoux reported on ceramic manufactures, including earthenwares.

M. G. Bontemps, glass manufacturer, Chevalier de la Legion d'Honneur, reported on glass.

Sir William Hooker, F.R.S., Director of the Royal Gardens, Kew, reported on vegetable products obtained without cultivation. The report contains particulars respecting such produce of India and the Indian Archipelago:—1st, fibres, including the grasses, sedges, palms, flax, Indian hemp; 2nd, woods; 3rd, tanning substances; 4th, dye stuffs; 5th, oils. The importance of the Indian oils, excluding the essential oils or attars, is shown by a table exhibiting the gross quantity of vegetable oils and oil seeds exported from the Madras territories to the United Kingdom, foreign and home ports, for the year 1847–8 to 1852–3 inclusive. In the latter year there were exported 151,528 cwts. cocoa-nuts dry, and 1,457,741 galls. cocoa-nut oil; 251,613 cwt. gingeley seed, and 72,607 galls. gingeley oil; 73,215 cwt. lamp-oil seeds, and 51,084 galls. lamp-oil; 57,207 galls. ground nut oil; 3,111 galls. Margosa oil; 860 cwt. Pinnacotay seed; 80,090 cwt. cotton seed; 16,075 cwt. mustard seed, &c.; 6th, gums and resins; 7th, medical substances; and 8th, spices, pulses, and cerealia. The report gives also a minute account of similar products in different countries. Upon a review of the relative condition of British products to the 43 contributing countries, Sir W. Hooker showed that a very large proportion of the whole was occupied by the British possessions, and if asked why the country stood so high above any other in the extent and variety of its vegetable products, he would find an answer in the great commercial industry and energy of our nation, and in the vast extent and variety of climatic differences of our colonies, whence are derived so many of the raw materials of the vegetable kingdom.

J. Forbes Royle, M.D., F.R.S., Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics, King's College, London, reported on Indian and Colonial products useful as food and for manufactures.

The report commences with mineral substances. Coal is very extensively to be found in India. The coal field entombed in the Damoodah valley has a developed thickness of at least 11,000 feet. Petroleum, or earth oil, is abundant. This oil is used by the natives for lamps; and boiled with resinous matter, it serves for painting the timber of houses, and for paving

the bottoms of boats, which it preserves from decay and vermin. Iron may be produced in large quantity in India, but it is not profitable in many localities. Everything depends upon the greater or less vicinity to each other of the ore, the flux, and the fuel. Tin is an important produce.

As to agricultural products, rice is largely exported. Wheat is also cultivated. The average annual price in Calcutta was about 21s. per quarter; but with freight and other charges, it could not be landed in England for less than 50s. a quarter. The production of sugar is increasing. The culture of tea has been commenced with success. The tea plant is now flourishing over a tract containing upwards of 30,000 square miles of land. Valuable information is also given in the report on vegetable products, dyes, cotton, flax, wool, &c.

Captain Fowke, Royal Engineers, reported on civil construction.

Mr. Richard Redgrave, B.A., reported on the present state of design applied to manufactures.

This report is a most able dissertation on art and design treating the subject in view generally, and introducing remarks on individual works only as illustrations of any particular points to be enforced.

No. LXXXIV—RUSSIA COMPANY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons dated 22nd February 1856, for Copy of Memorial from the Russia Company presented to the Board of Trade in August 1853. (Mr. Hankey). (69).

LETTERS patent were granted to the Russia Company by Philip and Mary dated 26th February, in the 1st and 2nd year of their reign. By the 8th Eliz. the company was designated. "The Fellowship of English Merchants for discovery of New Trades." By the 10 and 11 Will. III., c. 6, in 1699, it was enacted that every subject of the realm might obtain admission into the Company by the payment of 5*l.*, but since 1835 only 3*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* has been charged, which is paid to the Crown for stamp duty. The dues received in London and at the out-ports amount to 1,800*l.* to 2,000*l.* per annum. There are no dues on the exportation of goods. The Russia Company has an agent at St. Petersburg and one at Elsinore. The Company contribute to the maintenance of chaplains at St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Moscow, Archangel, and Solambol. A school is also established at St. Petersburg under the auspices of the Company. The Russia Company and the British factory at St. Petersburg have been always connected. The British subjects in St. Petersburg alone amount to about 3,000.—The whole charge on a British vessel of 200 tons register, about the average tonnage, is 322 Rubles bank-notes at 10½*d.* = 14*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.* This charge, about 1*s.* 5*d.* per ton, is only two-thirds of what all other European vessels pay under different heads.

No. LXXXV.—ACCOUNTS RELATING TO TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

THREE MONTHS ENDED 31ST OCTOBER, 30TH NOVEMBER, AND 31ST DECEMBER, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.]

I.—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE IMPORTS AND CONSUMPTION OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, IN THE MONTHS ENDED 31ST OCTOBER, 30TH NOVEMBER, AND 31ST DECEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.	Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.
Animals, living .	34,902	26,788	13,395	Glass Manufactures:			
Ashes . . cwt.	10,899	20,282	29,095	Window Glass &c.			
Barilla . . tons.	249	—	71	cwt.	2,127	2,186	3,145
Bark . . cwt.	38,800	28,113	50,436	Plate Glass . lbs.	69,623	60,263	75,970
Bones of Animals, tons	6,097	1,156	8,127	White Flint Glass			
Brimstone . cwt.	106,939	92,300	109,117	Goods lbs.	51,564	57,557	61,303
Caoutchouc . "	1,671	144	3,113	All Flint Cut Glass			
Clocks . number	23,004	20,230	29,245	cwt.	1,009	615	1,267
Cocoa . . lbs.	373,756	163,448	319,431	Guano . . tons	9,766	9,557	15,813
Coffee . . "	7,257,224	5,067,810	4,602,143	Hemp, dressed . cwt.	5,399	1,279	4,804
Corn . . grs.	704,423	842,534	783,271	Undressed . "	146,241	114,595	111,911
Indian Cor , or				Tow . . "	1,018	1,181	2,939
Maize . . "	152,066	125,537	90,433	Jute . . "	70,648	29,174	85,143
Flour and Meal cwt.	161,993	206,307	360,798	Other Substances			
Cotton . . "	396,389	231,595	847,609	cwt.	913	269	120
Cotton Yarn . lbs.	92,376	66,028	116,291	Hides, Untanned, viz:			
Value thereof. £	8,926	6,318	12,524	Dry . . cwt.	21,554	7,766	45,127
Cotton Manufactures	41,018	57,976	140,854	Wet . . "	43,497	26,499	64,835
Fringe . . lbs.	2,771	673	2,905	Hides . . lbs.	299,529	167,589	395,155
Gloves . . pairs	3,546	706	204	Lace, and Articles			
Stockings and socks				thereof			
Other articles				By Weight . lbs.	313	158	158
value £	1,362	1,577	1,950	By Value value £	181	141	268
Cubic Nitre . cwt.	21,084	8,258	94,276	Leather Manufac-			
Dyes:—				tures:			
Cochineal . cwt.	2,092	1,825	1,606	Boots, Shoes and			
Indigo . . "	2,793	871	5,394	Calashes . pairs	78,428	81,658	87,147
Lac dye . . "	1,131	830	3,513	Gloves . . "	365,463	294,417	324,480
Logwood . . "	4,642	5,555	4,467	Unenumerated			
Madder . cwt.	8,996	8,499	18,033	value £	155	529	378
Madder Root . "	7,494	19,459	70,905	Linen Manufactures:			
Shumac . . tons	1,380	1,578	3,287	Lawns, not French			
Terra Japonica , "	257	637	2,490	value £	470	3	375
Cutch . . "	57	55	657	Cambrics sq. yds.	17,422	3,449	8,595
Valonia . . "	2,172	2,575	3,547	Damasks . "	519	4,840	2,038
Embroidery and				Plain Linen value £	9,632	2,826	3,881
needlework, viz:				Sails . . "	51	502	221
By weight . lbs.	1,344	3,716	1,675	Articles wholly or			
By value . £	7,579	4,912	7,223	in part made up:			
Flax, dressed . cwt.	1,115	253	1,027	Cambric Handker-			
Undressed . "	302,649	90,643	154,393	chiefs number	1,684	681	2,773
Tow or Codilla of				Unenumerated			
flax cwt.	48,752	12,798	33,035	value £	1,130	589	765
Fruits: viz.				Mahogany . tons	3,951	4,001	7,965
Currents . cwt.	41,241	84,740	169,823	Metals: viz.			
Figs . . "	7,628	11,009	23,286	Copper Ore and Re-			
Lemons and Oranges				gulus . . tons	7,590	5,908	14,859
bushels, chests	11,113	62,632	182,427	Copper . . cwt.	3,277	466	10,498
Raisins . cwt.	71,061	60,439	75,704	Iron, in Bars, tons	8,314	1,053	9,220
				Steel . . "	217	233	181

Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.	Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.
Metals, viz.				Spices, viz:—			
Lead, Pig and Sheet tons	1,449	787	1,548	Cloves . . lbs.	129,148	2,328	100,514
Spelter . . "	2,138	1,544	2,713	Mace . . "	38,932	703	28,489
Tin, in Blocks cwt.	12,089	6,616	15,458	Nutmegs . . "	106,131	3,376	157,574
Oil: viz.				Pepper . . "	1,267,922	1,007,783	2,689,895
Train . . tuns	2,540	2,524	3,224	Pimento . . cwt.	589	308	3,106
Palm . . cwt.	90,247	121,673	136,123	Spirits, viz.:			
Cocoa Nut . . "	15,378	6,177	5,813	Rum . . p. gals.	876,407	121,863	671,199
Olive . . tuns	643	1,445	2,346	Brandy . . "	204,937	288,621	482,428
Rapeseed . . "	1,269	871	901	Geneva . . "	14,888	18,963	25,661
Oil Seed Cakes tons	7,311	8,127	16,367	Sugar, unrefined, cwt.	581,712	363,526	1,081,806
Opium . . lbs.	5,714	12,816	19,498	Refined, and Candy, British Possessions out of Europe cwt.	869	26	90
Potatoes . . cwt.	878	8,079	19,795	Other Parts . . "	1,947	4,061	20,936
Provisions: viz.				Molasses, Possessions out of Europe	14,489	12,569	16,861
Bacon . . cwt.	7,088	8,018	15,653	Other Parts . . cwt.	27,455	8,037	13,146
Hams . . "	1,526	863	1,834	Tallow . . "	205,943	158,671	160,993
Beef . . "	5,939	6,289	6,273	Tar . . lasts	4,177	2,427	3,030
Pork, salted	3,899	13,590	13,477	Tea . . lbs.	10,036,170	3,554,392	12,473,465
Poultry value £	6,454	5,253	15,425	Timber and Wood:—			
Butter . . cwt.	50,270	47,820	52,605	Deals, Battens, sawn or split			
Cheese . . "	43,618	34,694	51,394	Of British Possessions loads	97,640	99,039	84,874
Eggs . number	7,504,600	5,389,800	7,067,200	Foreign . . "	117,774	98,359	204,644
Lard . . cwt.	2,909	8,603	9,018	Staves . . "	10,870	10,854	18,170
Quicksilver . lbs.	...	16,334	2,016	Timber or Wood, not sawn or split:			
Rice . . cwt.	339,820	193,891	658,911	Of British Possessions loads	97,494	79,171	67,758
In the Husk qrs.	7,579	8,366	461	Foreign . . "	72,469	58,396	98,283
Saltpetre . . cwt.	44,780	25,178	51,328	Tobacco, viz.:			
Seeds, viz.:				Stemmed . . lbs.	2,010,409	3,716,165	4,987,565
Clover . . cwt.	1,965	5,927	41,271	Unstemmed . . "	2,022,341	6,195,743	13,003,616
Linseed . . qrs.	129,662	78,808	214,883	Manufactured . . "	188,968	88,368	235,246
Rape . . "	4,867	7,846	30,693	Turpentine, common			
Tares . . "	28	153	4,953	Watches . . "	26,300	13,344	25,643
Silk, viz.:				Whale Fins . cwt.	8,549	7,473	9,870
Raw . . lbs.	1,509,218	258,813	1,042,108	Wine:	1,831	643	1,110
Waste, Knubs and Husks cwt.	1,351	1,036	3,318	Red . . gals.	492,252	325,098	780,042
Thrown . . lbs.	95,253	43,197	163,981	White . . "	572,269	571,964	759,260
Silk Manufactures, viz.:				Wool . . lbs.	9,119,716	5,617,104	13,973,898
Silk or Satin lbs.	12,066	3,382	24,922	Alpaca and the Llama Tribe lbs.	206,511	343,100	818,769
Ribbons . . "	20,965	7,679	13,205	Woollen Manufactures:			
Gauze or Crape "	666	253	166	Not made up value £	101,256	61,171	119,978
Ribbons . . "	1,904	252	1,211	Carpets and Rugs sq. yds.	5,006	6,824	3,519
Gauze mixed with Silk . . lbs.	450	47	58	Shawls, Scarfs, &c. lbs.	2,548	483	531
Velvet Broad Stuffs lbs.	2,839	1,364	1,188	Gloves . . pairs	2,511	1,290	387
Ribbons of Velvet or Plush . lbs.	21,399	15,034	13,823	Other Articles value £	2,695	969	807
Plush for making Hats . . lbs.	15,600	8,751	16,873				
Bandannoes, Corahs, lbs.	22,909	46,111	110,315				
Spices, viz.:							
Cassia Lignea lbs.	20,195	46,772	498,657				
Cinnamon . . "	130,379	31,795	194,330				

II.—EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE IN THE MONTHS ENDED 31ST OCTOBER, 30TH NOVEMBER, AND 31ST DECEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.	Articles.	Oct. 1856.	Nov. 1856.	Dec. 1856.
Cheese - - cwts.	792	812	921	Metals, viz.:			
Cocoa - - lbs.	88,229	33,207	11,173	Lead, Pig and Sheet			
Coffee - - "	2,028,270	1,632,759	1,293,260	tons	99	...	111
Corn, viz.:				Spelter - - "	107	66	64
Wheat - - qrs.	5,025	16,553	37,691	Tin in Blocks "	38	87	1,696
Barley - - "	940	1,130	3,332	Oil, viz.:			
Oats - - "	509	553	314	Palm - - cwts.	23,305	24,364	6,639
Wheatmeal or				Cocoa Nut - - "	6,827	1,110	3,076
Flour - cwts.	14,011	4,485	36,364	Olive - - tuns	41	101	172
Cotton, Raw, viz.:				Opium - - lbs.	1,736	1,858	3,604
Imported from the				Quicksilver - "	114,543	129,206	110,337
United States				Rice, not in the Husk	82,661	64,930	93,019
cwts.	46,132	33,142	13,224	Silk, viz.:			
Brazil - - "	1,733	940	34	Raw - - lbs.	35,524	63,848	97,634
Egypt - - "	295	715	174	Waste, Knubs and			
British India "	92,654	75,816	51,252	Husks - cwts.	71	58	100
Other Parts "				Thrown - - lbs.	14,375	11,971	20,384
Cotton Yarn - lbs.	34,240	37,750	29,142	Silk Manufactures of			
Declared value				Europe, viz.:			
thereof - - £	3,435	3,830	3,083	Silk or Satin Broad			
Cotton Manufac-				Stuffs - - lbs.	315	124	910
turers pieces	18,757	15,426	14,293	Ribbons - - "	435	289	619
East India Piece				Velvet Broad Stuffs	32	298	108
Goods - - £	7,989	6,508	6,570	Ribbons of Velvet -	482	451	826
Other Articles - £	4,716	2,648	2,870	Silk Manufactures of			
Cotton Manufac-				India, viz.:	34,942	27,697	31,119
turers:				Spices, viz.:			
Fringe - - lbs.	931	524	1,096	Cassia Lignea - lbs.	51,246	60,413	54,049
Stockings and				Cinnamon - - "	57,341	76,099	47,116
Socks - - lbs.	4,476	4,248	28,771	Cloves - - "	35,808	41,237	22,281
Other Articles				Mace - - "	9,247	9,573	5,013
value £	280	927	719	Nutmegs - - "	16,547	14,882	15,841
Dyes and Dyeing				Pepper - - "	515,701	585,113	951,515
Stuffs, viz.:				Pimento - - "	396	129	101
Cochineal - cwts.	2,266	1,266	1,498	Spirits, viz.:			
Indigo - - "	6,224	4,453	2,599	Rum - prf. gals.	260,603	255,385	345,034
Lacdy - - "	240	284	216	Brandy - - "	117,039	120,357	108,049
Logwood, &c. tons	660	367	128	Geneva - - "	5,641	7,163	13,323
Glass Manufactures,				Sugar, Unrefined	34,960	29,831	11,828
Window Glass cwts.	124	627	46	Sugar, Refined, and			
Plate Glass - lbs.	1,232	1,318	6,740	Molasses - cwts.	8,964	1,009	4,561
Guano - - tons	5,576	8,811	2,324	Tea - - lbs.	568,765	359,389	271,945
Hides, Untanned,				Tobacco, viz.:			
Dry - - cwts.	10,708	9,820	3,639	Stemmed - lbs.	4,340	2,546	—
Wet - - "	1,817	4,566	698	Unstemmed - "	656,646	531,836	1,269,232
Tanned, Tawed,				Foreign Manufac-			
Curried or Dressed				tured - - lbs.	87,393	112,335	90,828
(Except Russia				Wine - - gals.	236,663	154,351	226,228
Hides) - lbs.	31,886	20,985	31,634	Wool, Sheep and			
Leather Manufac-				Lambs' lbs.	990,588	2,722,095	2,927,822
tures, viz. Gloves				Alpaca and the			
pairs	30,336	27,628	43,298	Llama Tribe - lbs.	260	10,301	22,103
Metals, viz.:				Woollen Manufac-			
Copper - - cwts.	1,088	2,134	765	tures, viz.:			
Iron, in bars tons	826	1,107	1,113	Manufactures not			
Steel - - "	242	173	197	made up - value £	120	3,419	1,891

BOARD OF TRADE ACCOUNTS.

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III.—EXPORTS—BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE, &c.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL AND OTHER ARTICLES OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES IN THE THREE MONTHS ENDED 31st OCTOBER, 30th NOVEMBER, AND 31st DECEMBER, 1856.

Articles.	Quantities.			Declared Value.		
	October 1856.	November 1856.	December 1856.	October 1856.	November 1856.	December 1856.
Alkali, viz., Soda . . . cwts.	146,266	139,159	94,528	£ 63,933	£ 62,637	£ 43,760
Beer and Ale . . . barrels	21,201	35,439	32,903	84,598	128,214	124,119
Butter . . . cwts.	9,910	11,825	15,684	48,388	61,556	82,002
Candles . . . lbs.	597,694	490,395	698,441	28,577	24,294	34,543
Cheese . . . cwts.	6,283	4,365	4,761	23,394	17,183	19,290
Coals and Culm . . . tons.	568,636	897,618	345,225	276,475	196,587	168,717
Cordage and Cables . . cwts.	7,801	5,254	4,426	16,285	11,166	9,357
Cotton Manufactures :						
Entered by the Yard . yards	185,615,678	190,889,950	179,790,576	2,620,119	2,744,642	2,704,494
Lace and Patent Net . .	5,033,573	6,430,776	5,502,442	29,837	38,453	30,976
Thread for sewing . . lbs.	575,450	453,383	427,142	59,172	52,085	48,665
Stockings . . . doz. pairs.	68,306	163,842	145,154	18,680	40,571	35,161
Of other descriptions value £	33,326	33,292	41,101
Cotton Yarn . . . lbs.	16,560,701	14,209,887	16,990,830	734,042	681,568	753,938
Earthenware . . . pieces	9,800,738	8,789,559	6,537,099	135,354	132,938	95,799
Fish; viz., Herrings . . barrels	64,868	23,023	13,990	82,361	26,715	14,739
Of other sorts . . value £	29,522	32,387	10,384
Glass Manufactures :						
Flint Glass . . . cwts.	7,506	4,777	4,357	22,161	15,069	14,786
Window Glass . . . "	2,775	1,220	2,847	4,083	2,077	3,506
Bottles, Green . . . "	44,754	44,971	37,061	25,137	24,893	20,787
Plate Glass . . value £	4,021	7,301	3,456
Haberdashery and Millinery value £	273,626	257,651	328,533
Hardwares and Cutlery . "	375,648	371,564	340,879
Leather, Unwrought . . cwts.	3,781	2,701	2,187	34,092	24,932	22,348
Wrought; viz., Gloves . lbs.	1,145	1,847	5,753	1,230	2,012	4,071
Of other sorts . . . "	681,061	664,660	684,476	136,956	124,311	142,583
Saddlery and Harness value £	25,825	23,924	25,649
Linen Manufactures :						
Entered by the Yard . yards.	12,548,635	15,234,483	12,647,071	393,330	455,079	401,047
Lace of Thread . . . "	8,989	15,394	35,667	185	537	787
Thread for Sewing . . lbs.	350,569	399,899	414,345	33,567	36,268	33,120
Of other descriptions value £	5,324	5,655	1,174
Linen Yarn . . . lbs.	2,372,777	2,220,022	2,728,453	131,776	128,170	162,520
Machinery and Mill Work, viz.:						
Steam Engines . . value £	82,926	101,516	42,251
Of all other sorts . . . "	264,689	172,249	153,308
Metals, viz.:						
Iron, Pig . . . tons.	36,856	31,442	19,659	139,179	119,802	73,959
Bar, Bolt and Rod . . "	61,896	50,493	48,454	560,337	454,733	413,239
Wire . . . "	1,080	1,077	602	21,239	23,591	13,306
Cast . . . "	6,771	8,598	4,447	74,700	79,216	52,541
Wrought of all sorts . . "	25,267	23,069	15,796	340,223	329,410	228,173
Steel, Unwrought . . . "	2,053	1,940	1,619	70,098	70,966	55,800
Copper, in Bricks and Pigs						
. . . cwts.	12,973	8,979	12,634	70,585	50,246	70,236
Sheets, Nails, &c. . . "	23,719	29,394	24,709	129,389	159,720	143,507
Wrought of other sorts . "	5,941	2,002	1,607	35,308	15,261	13,438
Brass of all sorts . . . "	1,990	2,469	1,878	14,207	14,415	11,910
Lead . . . tons	2,854	1,676	1,272	70,855	40,899	31,650
Tin, Unwrought . . . cwts.	3,349	2,782	3,280	21,755	17,555	22,822
Tin Plates . . value £	128,481	136,260	113,275
Oil, Linseed, &c. . . gals.	742,779	683,321	540,163	126,931	113,202	85,173

Articles.	Quantities.			Declared Value.		
	October 1856.	November 1856.	December 1856.	October 1856.	November 1856.	December 1856.
				£	£	£
Painters' Colours and Materials value £	58,107	33,681	34,560
Salt . bush.	3,008,348	2,586,993	2,155,060	44,301	35,305	28,070
Silk Manufactures :						
Of Silk only :						
Stuffs, Handkerchiefs lbs.	40,190	48,200	70,388	52,783	55,065	82,292
Stockings . doz. pairs	417	757	810	640	1,050	1,419
Other descriptions value £	30,672	26,782	39,798
Of Silk mixed with other Materials :						
Stuffs, &c. . lbs.	35,257	25,407	58,635	18,263	12,257	26,483
Stockings . doz. pairs	59	...	3,833	40	...	2,645
Of other descriptions value £	14,372	15,695	20,114
Silk, Thrown . lbs.	71,836	70,550	128,528	80,934	86,844	147,808
Silk Twist and Yarn . "	48,932	42,485	42,183	26,000	22,121	22,970
Soap . cwts.	17,413	13,605	14,204	25,292	18,320	19,607
Stationery . value £	73,519	64,756	64,178
Sugar, Refined . cwts.	33,985	26,193	9,831	91,117	73,686	28,178
Wool, Sheep or Lambs' lbs.	829 198	923,315	1,087,060	57,725	69,971	80,880
Woollen and Worsted Manufactures :						
Woollens by the Piece pieces	44,944	49,784	49,582	210,413	198,128	233,323
by the Yard . yards	4,425,954	4,910,533	6,034,374	242,102	253,326	262,642
Worsted Stuffs . pieces	171,178	151,277	162,241	224,864	200,002	200,179
Stockings . doz. pairs	10,349	22,822	16,420	7,694	17,664	12,982
Articles entered at Value value £			
Woollen and Worsted Yarn cwts.	23,239	20,842	22,331	35,861	39,600	53,280
Yarn of Wool or Worsted "	392	449	760	275,425	252,065	269,372
Total declared value :				9,624	10,293	19,301
Of enumerated Articles . £	9,481,674	9,149,383	8,886,960
Unenumerated Articles . £	1,185,277	1,122,692	1,158,266
All Articles . . . £	10,666,951	10,272,075	10,045,226

No. LXXXVI.—AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS, IRELAND.

General Abstract showing the Average under the several crops, and the number of live stock in each County and Province, for the year 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

IN 1856 there were in Ireland 5,753,681 acres of land under crop, against 5,688,836 acres in 1855. In wheat, there were 529,363 acres, against 445,775 in 1855; oats, 2,036,181, against 2,118,858 in 1855; barley, rye, &c., 218,503, against 267,931 acres in 1855, showing a decrease on cereal crops in 1856 of 48,517 acres. In green crops, there was an increase of 114,435 acres, especially in potatoes; 1,104,590 acres in 1856, against 982,301 acres in 1855.

The total quantity of live stock was 573,266 horses, 3,584,723 cattle, 3,688,143 sheep, and 915,933 pigs. The value of live stock, calculated at 8*l.* for horses, 6*l.* 10*s.* for cattle, 22*s.* for sheep, and for pigs 25*s.* each, gave 33,088,701*l.*

No. LXXXVII.—AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS (IRELAND).

Tables showing the estimated average produce for the year 1855.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament, by command of Her Majesty.*]

THE estimated produce of the several crops in 1855, for all Ireland, was as follows:—Wheat, 445,775 acres, 1,520,819 quarters; oats, 2,118,858 acres, 10,266,350 quarters; barley, 226,629 acres, 1,097,631 quarters; bere, 11,185 acres, 56,848 quarters; rye, 11,632 acres, 57,362 quarters; beans, 13,117 acres, 51,952 quarters; peas, 5,368 acres, 17,653 quarters. The estimated produce of potatoes, 6,073,598 tons; flax, 3,748,451 stone of 14 lbs. The average produce per statute acre was, wheat, barrels of 20 stone, 5·7; oats, barrels of 14 stone, 7·8; barley, barrels of 16 stone, 8·7; bere, barrels of 16 stone, 7·8; rye, barrels of 20 stone, 8·0; beans and peas, bushels 8 gallons, 30·1; potatoes, barrels 20 stone, 50·8; turnips, tons, 16·6; mangold wurzel, tons, 18·0; flax, stone 14 lbs., 38·6; hay, tons, 2·0.

No. LXXXVIII.—EXCHEQUER.

An Account of all money received during the year ended 31st March, 1856, to the account of Her Majesty's Exchequer at the Bank of England and of Ireland, under the respective heads of public revenue; the amount of all Royal Orders and Treasury Warrants received, and of the credits and transfers made by the Comptroller-General of the Exchequer; the payments by the Bank of England; and the balance remaining to the account of the Exchequer at each Bank on the 31st March, 1856.

[*Per Acts 4 Will. IV., c. 15, and 17 & 18 Vict., c. 94.*] (89.)

THE balance of available income on the 31st March, 1855, was 3,968,082*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.* The receipts amounted to 111,186,857*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.* Total, 115,154,860*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* The payments amounted to 102,752,696*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.* The Exchequer credits at the Bank of England, and transfers at the Bank of Ireland, amounted to 109,551,711*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.* The balance of income at the Bank of England on 31st March, 1856, 4,319,573*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.*; at the Bank of Ireland, 1,283,574*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.*: total, 5,802,623*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.* Total, 115,154,860*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*

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No. LXXXIX.—DEFICIENCY BILLS, &c.

Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 1st April, 1856, for

Return stating the amounts of all Deficiency or other Bills in anticipation of the Public Revenue, issued in each quarter, commencing from 5th January to 31st March, 1855, and up to 31st March, 1856; also (2) of all Exchequer Bills and other Government Securities purchased or taken by the Governor and Company of the Bank of England during the said period, &c., &c., (106. L.)

From January to March, 1855, there were issued 1,519,534*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.*, and 1,000,000*l.* Consolidated Fund Bills, at a rate of interest—for Deficiency Bills, 2*d.* per cent. per diem, amount paid, 124*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*; Consolidated Fund Bills, 2½*d.* per cent. per diem, 7,518*l.* 15*s.* From April to June, there were issued 3,467,094*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* Deficiency Bills, and 1,740,000*l.* Consolidated Fund Bills; interest at the same rates, 2*d.* per cent. per diem, 6,535*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*, and 2½*d.* per cent. per diem, 19,230*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.* From July to September, there were issued 3,306,433*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* Deficiency Bills; interest, 2*d.* per cent. per diem, 2,676*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* From October to December, Deficiency Bills, 853,442*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*, interest, nil. From January to March 1856, Deficiency Bills, 3,879,749*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*; interest, 2½*d.* per cent. per diem, 8,114*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*; amount outstanding on 31st March, 1856, nil. Exchequer Bills were issued at 2*d.* per cent. per day.

The balances in the Exchequer at the commencement of each quarter, from April, 1855, to April, 1856, were as follow:—1st April, 1855, 3,949,774*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*; 1st July, 1855, 3,882,640*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*; 1st October, 1855, 6,761,470*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.*; 1st January, 1856, 3,688,600*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*; 1st April, 1856, 5,600,621*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.*

The Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt made the following purchases and sales of Stock from the 5th January, 1855, to 31st March, 1856, on account of the fund for Savings Banks. Purchased: Exchequer Bills, 8,911,000*l.*; Exchequer Bonds, 250,000*l.* Amount paid for such, including interest, 9,205,823*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* Sold: 4,801,190*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* Stock, 4,206,500*l.* Exchequer Bills, 85,000*l.* Exchequer Bonds. Amount received for stock, bills, and bonds sold, 8,688,444*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*

The Commissioners purchased on account of the Sinking Fund during the same period, 34,402*l.* Consolidated 3 per Cents., 3,199*l.* 2*s.* 11*d.* Reduced 3 per Cents. Sum paid, 33,755*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.* The balance in the hands of the Commissioners on 31st March, 1856, was 5,110,000*l.*

The funded debt of the United Kingdom, on the 5th January, 1855, amounted to 755,300,992*l.*, and on the 31st March, 1856, 778,997,000*l.* The unfunded debt on the 5th January, 1855, was—Exchequer Bills, 17,183,000*l.*; Exchequer Bonds, 5,600,000*l.* 31st March, 1856, Exchequer Bills, 21,182,700*l.*; Exchequer Bonds, 7,000,000*l.*

No. XC.—BANK NOTES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 1st April, 1856, for A Copy of Treasury Minutes, dated 18th day of March, 1856, respecting the payment to the public of the net profits of the additional issue of Bank-notes, under Her Majesty's Order in Council, dated the 7th day of December, 1855. (The Chancellor of the Exchequer.) (137.)

THE Chancellor of the Exchequer having directed the attention of the Board to the 5th sect. of the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32, and to the Order in Council authorizing an additional issue of bank-notes to the extent of 475,000*l.*, the Board considered the effect of the said augmentation of issue on the profit due to the public, which calculated at two per cent., would be 9,500*l.* per annum, and subject to the deduction according to the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32, s. 24, 1,422*l.*, leaves a net profit of 8,078*l.*; and the same was ordered to be added to the 180,000*l.* now deducted from the charge payable to the Bank for the management of the public debt, making together a sum of 188,078*l.* from the 5th August, 1856.

No. XCI.—SUPERANNUATION (PUBLIC OFFICES).

An Account of all Allowances or Compensations granted as Retired Allowances or Superannuations in all Public Offices or Departments which remained payable on the 1st January, 1855; the annual amount which was granted in the year 1855; the annual amount which ceased within the year; and the total amount remaining payable on the 31st December, 1855.

[Presented to Parliament pursuant to Act 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 24.] (112.)

THE total amount of compensation allowances which remained payable on the 1st January, 1855, was 220,327*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.*; the annual amount granted in the year 1855, 12,943*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; the allowances ceased, 14,424*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* There remained on the 31st December, 1855, 218,846*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.* The superannuation allowances, payable on 1st January, 1855, 550,337*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*; granted in the year, 68,282*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.*; ceased, 43,718*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.*; remained payable 31st December, 1855, 574,901*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.* Total compensation and allowances remaining payable 31st December, 1855, 793,748*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*; deduction in 1855, pursuant to section of the Act 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 24, 65,060*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.* Total charge on the public on the 31st December, 1855, 728,688*l.* 8*s.* 3*d.*

No. XCII.—PUBLIC ACCOUNTS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 11th April, 1856, for A Statement of the Accounts in the Audit Office, showing to what date examined as finally audited, and the reason for the delay (if any) of the audit of accounts in arrear, in continuation of Parliamentary Paper of Session 1849. (Mr. Bowyer.) (215.)

IN January 1849, the number of accounts for audit annually was 616; in

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May 1856, 638; in January 1849, the number of accounts in arrear of delivery was 124; and the number in office not yet audited, 754. Total, 878. In May 1856, the number of accounts in arrear of delivery was 71, and in office not yet audited, 441. Total, 512, or 366 less to be audited than at the date of the last return.

No. XCIII.—FISHERIES (IRELAND).

Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries, Ireland, pursuant to the Act 5 & 6 Vict., c. 106.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

THE report of the inspectors showed, that owing to the war, there has been some deduction in the number of persons employed in the deep sea fisheries, but that some difficulty existed in obtaining satisfactory statistical information on the subject. The inspectors recommend the consolidation of the fishery laws, which are now scattered over six Acts.

No. XCIV.—WOODS, FORESTS, AND LAND REVENUES.

Abstract Account of the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues, for the year ended 31st March, 1855.

[*Pursuant to 14 & 15 Vict., c. 42, s. 37.*] (79.)

THE capital account of the Land Revenue showed a balance, on the 1st April, 1854, which amounted to—cash, 29,956*l.* 12*s.* 3*d.*; stock, 112,269*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.* The receipts in cash were 206,853*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*, and stock purchased, 6,931*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* Total, cash, 236,809*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.*; stock, 119,201*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* The expenditure consisted—in cash, 190,709*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* for purchase of estates; 6,013*l.* 10*s.* 3½*d.* purchase of stock. The amount of stock sold was 118,176*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.* The balance on the 31st March, 1855, was, cash, 40,086*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*; stock, 1,025*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.* The income of the land revenue showed a balance, on the 1st April, 1854, not available, of 56,266*l.* 7*s.* Receipts from land revenue, 324,713*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*; Windsor Forest, 6,539*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*; Royal forests and woodlands, 52,503*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Total, 440,023*l.* 2*s.* 10*d.* The expenditure amounted to 122,132*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.* There was paid over to the Exchequer, as surplus income, in 1854–5, 272,571*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* The balance on the 31st March, 1855, not available, was 45,318*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* An account also is given of the New Forest drainage; of the churches at Sunk Island and Newborough; of the churches in Dean Forest; and of the vote for salaries, and expenses in the office, which amounted to 22,129*l.* 13*s.* 1*d.* The general abstract of accounts of the Commissioners showed receipts—securities purchased, 141,001*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*; cash, 701,215*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*; payments, cash, 68,658*l.* 15*s.* 11*d.*; to persons, 18,423*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.* Total, 701,215*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* Securities sold—stock, 18,525*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*; Exchequer Bills, 4,300*l.* Total, 141,001*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*

No. XL.—CRIMINAL OFFENDERS (ENGLAND AND WALES.)

Tables showing the number of Criminal Offenders committed for trial or bailed for appearance at the Assizes and Sessions in each county, in the year 1855, and the results of the proceedings.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

A CONSIDERABLE decrease appears in the number of persons committed for trial in the year 1855, which must be attributed as well to the changes in the extension of summary jurisdiction as to the decrease of offences. The number committed for trial in 1855 was 25,972, against 29,359 in 1854, and 27,057 in 1853. The decrease in the last year has been as general as the increase proved in the previous year, only nine of the English counties are exempted from it.

CLASS I. *The offences against the person* show an increase of small amount for murder and attempts to murder; but in malicious stabbing and wounding an increase of 88 per cent., and in manslaughter 14 per cent. In the unnatural offences the numbers have slightly increased. In rape and attempts to ravish there is a small increase. In bigamy the commitments are nearly stationary; and this offence is a curious illustration of the uniform recurrence of certain crimes. In the last ten years the average commitments have been 82·7, and the numbers have been in each of three years 83, two years 82, and once 84. The assaults have decreased 18 per cent., arising on the common assaults; the newly defined offence of assaulting and inflicting bodily harm having increased nearly 10 per cent.

CLASS II. *The violent offences against property* have slightly decreased. Burglary, which for the three previous years had continued without variation, increased 7·7 per cent.; breaking within the curtilage, 69·0 per cent.; and shop and warehouse breaking, 9·0 per cent.; while in housebreaking, the largest offence in the class, there was a decrease of 23·5 per cent. The robberies increased 7·7 per cent.

CLASS III. *In the offences against property without violence* the decrease on the year has mainly arisen. It amounts to 13·7 per cent., and includes every offence except stealing fixtures and receiving stolen goods. In simple larceny it amounts to 18·4 per cent.; larceny by servants, 4·1 per cent.; and larceny from the person, 7·2 per cent.; these three offences being those to which the summary powers of the Criminal Justice Act of 1855 apply.

CLASS IV. *In the malicious offences against property* there is a decrease of 3·2 per cent., which extends to the chief offences of the class, except the maliciously killing and wounding cattle.

CLASS V. *In forgery and offences against the currency* the decrease is 5·4 per cent., arising on uttering counterfeit coin, and is for that offence nearly 9·0 per cent. On the other hand, the forging and uttering forged Bank of England notes increased 37·0 per cent., and other forgeries 14·8 per cent.

CLASS VI. *In the miscellaneous offences* there is a marked decrease of offences against the Game Laws, which, adding the large decrease on the previous year, is in the two years 54 per cent. In riots and breach of the peace the commitments are only half the number in the previous year. For perjury there is a considerable increase; and also in the proceedings against disorderly houses.

The result of the proceedings in the commitments before enumerated was—Not prosecuted, and admitted evidence, 81; no bills found against, 1,278; not guilty on trial, 4,608: acquitted and discharged, 5,967. Acquitted on the ground of insanity, 11; found insane, 23: detained as insane, 34. Sentenced to death, 50; sentenced to transportation, 323; sentenced to penal servitude, 2,041; sentenced to imprisonment, 17,397; sentenced to whipping, fine, &c., 160: convicted, 19,971. Total committed, 25,972.

The proportion acquitted and discharged in 1855 was 22·9 per cent., comprising 17·7 per cent. found not guilty on trial, 4·9 per cent. discharged no bills being found, and 0·3 per cent. not prosecuted. The sentences passed in 1855 were—to death, 50; transportation for life, 48; above fifteen years, 55; fifteen years and above ten years, 220. Penal servitude, ten years and above six years, 93; six years and above four years, 406; four years, 1,542. Imprisonment, above two years, 2; three years and above one year, 15; two years and above one year, 749; one year and above six months, 3,114; six months and above three months, 5,455; three months and above two months, 5,027; one month and under, 2,965; detained in reformatory schools, 70; whipping, fine, discharge on sureties, 160: total, 19,971. Of the fifty persons capitally convicted, seven of the eleven found guilty of murder were executed, two of whom were foreigners. The remainder of the capital sentences were commuted as follows:—twenty-four to transportation for life, two to above fifteen years, and six to fifteen and fourteen years; one to penal servitude for life, six to six and four years; and four to imprisonment.

The commitments in 1855 were, for trial at the following courts and sessions:—County Quarter Sessions Court, 12,686; Middlesex County Sessions of the Peace, 2,389; Borough Quarter Sessions Court, 5,173; Circuit Assize Courts, 4,514; and Central Criminal Court, 1,210. Total, 25,972.

No. XLI.—CRIMINAL OFFENDERS (IRELAND.)

THE number of committals in 1855 was 9,012, against 11,788 in 1854, or a decrease of 23·55 per cent. This decrease of committals extends to every county except five, in which there appears to have been a slight increase.

CLASS I. *Offences against the person.*—"Murder," the first item, is increased

from 53 in 1854 to 55 in 1855. "Shooting at, stabbing, wounding," &c.—For this crime 37 persons were committed in 1854, and 65 in 1855. "Solicitation to murder."—Two committals under this charge occurred in 1855, whilst in 1854 the committals were *nil*. "Rape" increased from 38 in 1854 to 43 in 1855. "Assaults" also exhibit an increase of 101, the number in 1855 being 1,607 against 1,506 in 1854; and "assaults on peace officers in the exercise of duty" increased from 78 in 1854 to 108 in 1855.

Attempts to murder decreased from 35 in 1854 to 31 in 1855. Conspiracy to murder, from 16 in the former year to 11 in 1855. Manslaughter also declined from 102 to 89.

Assault, with intent to ravish, decreased from 42 in 1854 to 38 in 1855; and child stealing or desertion, from 63 to 58.

CLASS II. *Offences against property committed with violence.*—The several crimes embraced in this class show, as compared with 1854, a very considerable reduction, with the exception of sacrilege and burglary with violence to persons, under which two heads there were *nil* returns in 1854, whereas, in 1855, seven persons were charged with the first-mentioned crime, and four with the last. Burglary, in 1855, exhibits a falling off of 87 as compared with 1854, the numbers being 231 and 318 respectively.

Housebreaking has declined from 113 in 1854 to 50 in 1855. Breaking into dwelling-houses, shops, warehouses, &c., with intent to steal, and misdemeanours with intent to do so, taken collectively, exhibit, in 1855, 56 committals, against 59 in 1854.

Robbery shows a falling off of nearly one-half, 162 having been committed for that offence in 1854, and but 89 in 1855. Robbery of arms also declined from 6 in 1854, to 2 in 1855. The only other head noticeable as to alteration in amount is, taking and holding forcible possession, for which crime 290 persons were charged in 1854, and but 208 in 1855.

CLASS III. *Offences against property committed without violence.*—In this class, also, every item, with the exception of three, has materially lessened in 1855 as compared with 1854. The crimes which exhibits an increase are horse-stealing, larceny by servants, and stealing letters from the General Post-office. The first mentioned has risen from 28 in 1854, to 32 in 1855; the second, from 56 to 58; and the last from 2 to 6. Cattle-stealing decreased from 94 to 64; sheep-stealing from 71 to 58; larceny simple, from 4,755 to 3,187; and receiving stolen goods from 363 to 291. On the whole class the reduction amounts to 1,920, the number in 1855 being 4,618, against 6,538 in 1854.

CLASS IV. *Malicious offences against property.*—This class, as a whole, exhibits a falling off, as compared with 1854, of more than one-third, the items in it amounting in 1854 to 136, against 89 in 1855; yet many of the crimes included therein show an increase over 1854: thus, attempts to commit arson have risen from 2 in 1854 to 15 in 1855; sending letters threatening to burn houses, from 3 to 5; setting fire to houses, from 1 to 2; and attacking and injuring dwelling-houses, from 8 to 9.

Arson (capital) decreased from 30 in 1854 to 25 in 1855; riot and feloniously demolishing buildings, &c., from 52 in 1854 to 3 in 1855; and killing and maiming cattle, from 23 to 4.

CLASS V. *Forgery and offences against the currency.*—None of the items in this class show an increase as compared with 1855, the total number in each of the years being respectively 160 in 1854, and 137 in 1855.

CLASS VI. *Offences not included in the above classes.*—The total of this class is nearly one-third less than that shown by the tables for 1854, the most remarkable features being the falling off in the crimes, “assembling armed unlawfully,” 10 persons having been so charged in 1854, and but 1 in 1855, and “assaulting revenue officers,” 6 having been, in 1854, committed for this offence, and during 1855 not one. Prison-breaking, however, increased from 1 in 1854 to 10 in 1855, and rescuing prisoners from 1 to 3. All the other crimes included in this class show a decrease as compared with 1854.

The number of committals in each of the seven years from 1849 to 1855, for the more serious offences, shows a great decrease, from 9,366 in 1849 to 1,303 in 1855; the number of murders, from 170 in 1849 to 55 in 1855. Of the 9,012 committed, 5,220 were convicted, equal to 57·92 per cent. The acquittals in 1855 amounted to 3,792, or 42·08 per cent. of the committals; of these, 15 were found insane, 1,882 not guilty on trial, and in 1,201 cases no bills were found; in 585 instances no prosecution took place, and 109 persons were bailed and not tried. The sentences in 1855 were, 5 to death, 12 to transportation for life, and 21 for 15 and above 14 years; 2 to penal servitude for life, 9 for 10 years and above 6 years, 54 for 6 and above 4 years, 420 for 4 years; 3 to imprisonment for 3 and above 2 years, 125 for 2 and above 1 year, 681 for 1 year and above six months, 3,139 for 6 months and under; 671 whipped, fined, or discharged, and 78 sentence respited and pardoned. Total, 5,220.

In 1855 there were committed or bailed 6,019 males and 2,993 females, and in 1854, 7,937 males and 3,851 females, showing a decrease in the year of 24·17 in the males and 22·28 in the females. In 1855, 2,085 could read and write, or 23·14 per cent.; 1,428 could read only, or 15·85 per cent.; 3,671 could neither read nor write, or 40·73 per cent.; and 1,828 whose instruction was not ascertained, or 20·28 per cent. The amount of education among the male and female offenders in 1854 and 1855 shows, that whilst in 1855 but 31·45 per cent. of the latter were entirely illiterate, 59·41 per cent. of the former were so; and that not 10 out of every 100 females committed can read and write, whilst nearly 30 males out of every 100 offenders have received that amount of instruction. The ages of the several offenders show the following proportion:—16 years and under, 731; 21 and above 16 years, 1,855; 30 and above 21 years, 2,495; 40 and above 30 years, 1,207; 50 and above 40 years, 548; 60 and above 50 years, 277; above 60 years, 98; ages not ascertained, 1,801. The most gratifying feature is the great reduction, more than one half, exhibited in the number

of offenders 12 years old and under. In all the other divisions, the decline is proportionable to the total reduction of offenders in the year. The number of committals in Ireland, 9,012, gives 1 committal in every 727 inhabitants; or if shown by sexes, 1 male in every 530 of that sex, and 1 in every 1,123 females. Great difference is observable in the criminality of different counties. In the county of Kildare there is 1 in every 425 inhabitants; in the Southern Riding of Tipperary, 1 in every 479 inhabitants; in Down, 1 in every 1,222; in Donegal, 1 in every 1,176.

No. XLII.—CRIMINAL OFFENDERS (SCOTLAND).

THE number of persons charged with offences in Scotland in 1855 exhibits a decrease, as compared with 1854, of 364, or 9·114 per cent. The number committed for trial in 1855 was 3,630, against 3,994 in 1854. Of these 3,630, in 1855, 2,961 were tried and 2,728 convicted. The offences against the person have decreased 8·8171 per cent.; offences against property with violence, 31·2 per cent.; offences against property without violence, 8·016 per cent.; and other offences, not included in the above classes, 0·41 per cent. While, on the other hand, malicious offences against property have increased 47·17 per cent., and forgery and offences against the currency, 42·53 per cent. In 1855, 474 males and 293 females could neither read nor write; 1,511 males and 691 females could read and write imperfectly; 486 males and 72 females could read and write well; and 77 males and 5 females had superior education. The sentences passed in 1855 were as follows:—2 to death, 9 to transportation for life, 14 to transportation for above 15 years, 29 to 15 and 14 years, 109 to imprisonment under 2 and above 1 year, 416 under 1 year and above six months, 1,608 six months and under, 328 whipped, fined, and discharged, 3 to penal servitude under 8 and above 6 years, 51 under 6 and above 4 years, and 120 under 4 years.

The offenders were tried by the following courts:—High Court of Justiciary, 88; Circuit Court, 331; Sheriff, with a jury, 1,334; Sheriff, without a jury, 1,046; Burgh Magistrates, 90; Justices or other courts, 72.

No. XLIII.—ENCUMBERED ESTATES COURT, &c. (IRELAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 7th February 1856, for Return showing the Names, Ages, Date of Appointment, and amount of Salaries and other emoluments of all persons holding office in the Encumbered Estates Court, Ireland; and a similar return from the Masters, Examiners, Clerks and Assistant Clerks, in the Court of Chancery in Ireland. (Mr. Macartney.) (70.)

THE First Commissioner had a salary of 1,549*l.*, the Second Commissioner 2,000*l.*, and the Third 2,000*l.*; the Masters, 1,000*l.*; the Secretary and Registrar, 700*l.* &c. &c. The Masters in Chancery have a salary of 3,000*l.* Irish, being 2,769*l.* 4*s.* 7½*d.* British each.

No. XLIV.—STATUTE LAW COMMISSION.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 28th April, 1856, for Return showing how the sum of 2,101l. 17s. remaining in the Treasury on the 26th April, 1855, has been disposed of; also the Expenditure of the sum of 3,711l. voted in 1855, for the Statute Law Commission; and the names of the Draftsmen employed by that Commission to prepare Consolidation Bills, and the Fees paid to each. (Mr. Locke King.) (216.)

THE balance in the Exchequer, added to the vote of 3,711l. in 1855, formed a sum of 5,984l. 19s. to be accounted for. The salaries and expenses of the Commission amounted to 2,919l. 7s. 5d., leaving a balance of 3,029l. 15s. 7d. A sum of 1,051l. 5s. was paid to draftsmen employed to prepare consolidation bills.

No. XLV.—KING'S INN (DUBLIN).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 23rd June, 1856, for Return of the Amount of all Moneys received by the Honourable Society of the King's Inn, Dublin, in each year, since the 30th June, 1839, to the present time, from Students at Law, Barristers, Attorneys, Apprentices, Admission of Attorneys, and Stamp Duty on Attorneys' Indentures, with a statement of the Expenditure of the same, &c. (Mr. Davison.) (360.)

THE sum received from the students varied considerably. In 1839 it was 225l.; in 1842, 1,317l. 12s.; in 1847, 601l. 17s. 4d.; and, in 1856, 86l. 1s. 4d. From barristers in 1839, 953l.; in 1840, 3,524l.; in 1856, 230l. 11s. 3d.; from apprentices, in 1839, 142l. 5s. 4d.; in 1847, 362l. 9s. 5d.; and in 1856, 102l. 6s. From attorneys, in 1839, 632l. 17s. 5d.; in 1842, 1,532l. 11s. 3d.; in 1856, 271l. 5s. Stamp duty on attorneys' indentures, in 1839, 868l.; in 1842, 1,820l.; in 1856, 294l.

The ordinary expenses were, in 1839, 2,012l. 2s.; in 1843, 6,034l. 15s. 6d.; in 1856, 3,522l. 13s. 1d. An extraordinary expenditure, amounting to the sum of 51,056l. 18s. 3d., was also incurred in the purchasing the interest of lands held by the society, &c., &c.

No. XLVI.—COURT OF CHANCERY.

Return of the state of the Suitors' Funds, standing in the name of the Accountant General of the Court of Chancery, and the charges upon the same.

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

THE suitors' fund for the year commencing the 2nd October, 1854, and ending the 1st October, 1855, was as follows:—On the 1st October, 1854,

there was a balance of 21,985*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.* in cash, and 4,212,709*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.* in stock. During the year dividends were received for 118,866*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* cash, making a total, in cash, of 140,852*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.* Stock was also purchased with suitors' cash, 163,226*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.*, making a total, in stock, of 4,375,935*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.* The payments were 56,762*l.* 18*s.*, and the surplus interest carried over to the suitors' fee fund account, 62,947*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.*; total, 119,710*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, leaving a balance, in cash, 1st October, 1855, 21,141*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.*

The suitors' fee fund account had a balance of cash on the 24th November, 1854, of 24,444*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*; the money received was 176,797*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.*; total 201,242*l.* 13*s.* 7*d.* The payments amounted to 159,416*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.*, and the balance of cash on the 24th November, 1855, 41,826*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* The moneys placed out to provide for the officers of the Court of Chancery showed a balance of stock on the 24th November, 1854, of 201,028*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* Dividends received during the year 5,653*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* Interest carried over to suitors' fee account, 5,653*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*; and balance on 25th November, 1855, 201,028*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*

NO. XLVII.—RURAL POLICE (SCOTLAND).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 23rd May, 1856, for

Return of the Number of Rural Police in each County in Scotland; Date when Established; Salaries; the Annual Cost to each County for the year 1853, 1854, and 1855; Value of Property in each County; and Rate of Assessment. (Mr. Cowan.) (400.)

THE total number of police employed was 468, and the annual cost in 1853, was 21,609*l.* 19*s.* 8*d.*; in 1854, 22,969*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*; and in 1855, 24,123*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* The rate varied from 1*d.* to 2*d.* in the pound.

NO. XLVIII.—JUDICIAL COMMITTEE OF THE PRIVY COUNCIL.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons dated 26th February, 1856, for

Returns respecting Appeals before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. (43.)

THE Judicial Committee commenced its sittings on the 27th November, 1833. From that year to 1856 it heard 973 cases, of which 640 cases were appeals, 242 were petitions heard by counsel, and 91 were patent cases. During the same period there were set down for hearing 436 colonial and Indian appeals, and 219 ecclesiastical and admiralty—total, 655. There were also 251 cases entered, but not set down for hearing. The Judges who have attended the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council were, Dr. Lushington, 438 times; Lord Brougham, 373 times (till 1850);

Mr. Pemberton Leigh, 322 times; Baron Parke, 315, Justice Erskine, 265 (previous to 1850); Sir E. Ryan, 209; Sir John B. Bosanquet, 207; Lord Langdale, 202; Lord Justice Knight Bruce, 167; Lord Campbell, 146; Sir John Patteson, 102; Sir Herbert Jenner Fust, 89; the Vice Chancellor of England, 87; Lord Justice Turner, 71; Lord Wharncliffe (the late), 61; &c. &c.

No. XLIX.—PRIVY COUNCIL.

Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 26th February, 1856, for Her Majesty's Order in Council of the 13th June, 1853, and 31st March, 1855, establishing certain Rules and Regulations in Appeals from the Colonies and from the territories of the East India Company. (424.)

THAT the appellant, when successful, may recover costs of appeal; that transcript records shall be sent to Registrar of Privy Council; and that the same may be printed abroad. Appeals may be heard in form of a special case.

No. L.—CRIMINAL JUSTICE ACT.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 21st April, 1856, for Return of all Convictions under the Criminal Justice Act, from the passing of the Act to the 31st day of March, 1856; specifying numbers convicted in each month, nature of crime committed, and sentence passed in each case. (Sir John Pakington.) (443.)

THE number convicted in England and Wales, from August to March, was 5,086. The offences were 4,452 larcenies, 391 larceny by servant, 159 larceny from person, and 84 attempted larceny from person. The sentences passed were, 226, 6 months; 35, 5 months; 228, 4 months; 1,017, 3 months; 1,182, 2 months; 1,067, 1 month; and 1,331 under 1 month.

BILLS.

For consolidating the Statute Law of England relating to Criminal Procedure by Indictment. (275. L.)

Accessories to and abettors of indictable offences. (276. L.)

Indictable offences of a public nature. (277. L.)

Indictable offences against Her Majesty the Queen and her Government. (278. L.)

Indictable offences by forgery. (279. L.)

Indictable offences against property by malicious injuries. (280. L.)

Indictable offences against property by larceny and other offences connected therewith. (281. L.)

Indictable offences against the person. (282. L.)

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No. XXXVIII.—CONTRACTS FOR PUBLIC DEPARTMENTS.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Principle adopted for making Contracts for the Supply of the Public Departments, and the effect which the present System has upon the Expenditure of Public Money. (362).

THE Committee was nominated the 23rd July, 1856, and consisted of Mr. Monsell, Colonel Boldero, Colonel Gilpin, Mr. Mitchell, Mr. Corry, Captain Laffan, Colonel Lindsay, Sir Charles Napier, Mr. Lloyd Davies, Viscount Goderich, Colonel Smyth, Mr. Brand, Mr. Moffatt, Colonel Dunne, Mr. Muntz, Mr. Liddell, Viscount Monck.

The Committee reported that they entered late in the Session upon an important inquiry, which will require further evidence, and have therefore confined themselves to reporting the evidence taken before them to the House; and they would recommend the re-appointment of the Committee in the next Session of Parliament.

The witnesses examined were Messrs. John Robert Godley, Director-General of Stores; George Dalhousie Ramsay, Assistant Director-General of Army Clothing; Captain Edward Mounier Boxer, Superintendent of the Royal Laboratories; Mr. James Sutton Elliot, Superintendent of Army Clothing at Weedon; Mr. Samuel Petrie, Director-General of the Commissariat; Captain Laffan, M.P., Deputy Inspector-General of Fortifications.

The following items are extracted from the body of evidence:—

ARMY CLOTHING DEPARTMENT.

This department was formed in June 1855. Its duties consist in taking charge of all patterns of clothing and appointments; to receive all requisitions for such; to examine them, and to give proper instructions to the clothiers, &c., &c. Previous to the formation of the clothing department, the clothing for the army was provided by the colonels of the different regiments. The colonel was allowed a certain sum annually for the clothing and accoutrements of each man borne on the strength of the regiment, which sum was called an off-reckoning. The regiments being seldom at their full complement, and the prices of articles of clothing being considerably less than the amount of the off-reckonings, the colonels derived a profit averaging 750*l.* a year in the infantry. By her Majesty's warrant of 6th June, 1854, the colonels were granted a fixed annual payment, in lieu of profits from off-reckonings. It is calculated that had the old system continued, the profits of the colonel when each regiment was on the war establishment would have been 1,525*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* Sir Willoughby Gordon, in the Committee on Army and Navy Appointments in 1833, stated the profit of the colonel, in round numbers, at 15*s.* 3*d.* per man. Mr. Ramsay calculated the sum saved to the public by the abolition of the off-reckonings at about 60,000*l.* a year, but the soldier had greater remedy

under the old system than at present if the clothing prove inferior. The cost of a tunic coat was given at 15s. 5½d.; a pair of trousers, 7s. 0½d.; one shell jacket, 7s. 4½d. The price payable to contractors for militia clothing was, for tunic for bandmaster, from 3l. 3s. to 3l. 18s., trousers 1l. 1s. to 1l. 4s.; tunic for band, 1l. 6s. to 1l. 12s., trousers, 12s. 6d. to 14s.; for sergeant-major, 2l. 10s. to 3l. 14s., trousers, 1l. to 1l. 5s. 6d.; for quartermaster-general's tunic, 2l. 10s. to 4l. 16s., trousers, 1l. 1s. to 1l. 5s. 6d.; for drum-major, the same; for sergeants' tunic, 1l. 10s. to 1l. 12s., trousers, 12s. to 14s.; for buglers' tunic, 1l. 14s. to 1l. 17s.; for rank and file, 16s. to 19s., trousers, 8s. to 9s.; coloured badges, 7s. 9d. to 18s. 9d.; sergeants' chevron, 4s. to 8s.; sergeants' crowns, 4s. to 5s. 9d.; corporals' chevron, 4d. to 6d. These prices varied, because the contractors competed. Taking into account the expenses of the establishment at Weedon, the old tunic, trousers, and chaco, which cost before 1l. 16s. 6d., will now cost 1l. 16s. 9½d. The French principally get their clothes made up at the headquarters of the regiment. There is a company attached to every arrangement which is employed in making the clothing. Such a system is scarcely possible here, because the dépôts are not stationary. There would be the advantage of better fitting clothes if they were made up in the regiment.

THE COMMISSARIAT.

Mr. Petrie gave evidence on the commissariat. As a general rule, all supplies and services required by the commissariat are obtained by contracts, the result of competition. The contracts are first advertised, and there are always two officers, independent of each other, present at the opening of every tender; and as soon as it is opened, the initials of each officer are affixed to it, which is a security that no alteration is made in it afterwards.

The lowest tender is generally accepted. But if there is reason to believe that the article can be obtained, or the service performed, at a cheaper rate, without resorting to competition, the whole of the tenders, including the lowest, are rejected. If there is reason to believe that the securities of the parties tendering are not sufficient, then the lowest tender is rejected. If there is reason to believe that the party tendering is not able to fulfil his contract, and if the next lowest is able to fulfil his contract, the lowest is rejected: but in every case of the rejection of a tender an explanation is required. The commissariat in each locality or command abroad has the power of rejection, subject to the approval of the officer commanding the troops. The senior commissariat officer submits to the commanding officer his reason for recommending the rejection of a particular tender; and if the commanding officer concurs in that recommendation, the tender is rejected, and the circumstances are reported home for final approval. When two or three tenders are sent in at the same rate, some consideration is given to the circumstances of the two tenderers. If one man has better security than another, or has previously entered into a contract, and performed it satisfactorily, he is preferred, but some reason must be assigned

for the preference. The contracts entered into abroad are generally for a twelvemonth; but there are cases in which they are for a longer period; such, for instance, as for fresh meat contracts abroad, in which it is necessary to import cattle: the contracts for those services are extended to three years, and there are some few other services of the same kind. But as a general rule the contracts are renewed annually.

The contractors are generally not allowed any compensation for loss incurred in the execution of their contracts; it is considered of essential importance to hold the contractor to his contract, and unforeseen circumstances, which are nevertheless not of infrequent recurrence, are considered to enter into the ordinary commercial speculation of the contractor—such as a deficient harvest, a combination among workmen, and contingencies of that kind, which diminish or absorb the profits. But there are some cases in which compensation is admitted, after communicating with the Treasury, whose authority is applied for in all those cases; such, for instance, as the sudden and unexpected breaking out of war, extensive inundations, or an extensive fire; exceptional cases of that description are considered favourably. There is also another class of cases of contracts, where the contractor is bound to keep a *depôt* for the execution of his contract. The ordinary run of contracts is that the contractor shall supply such quantities as may from time to time be required, and he has the particulars also of the average strength to be rationed; but it may happen that the troops are materially diminished in the course of his contract, or entirely withdrawn; and in that case, especially in the event of their being entirely withdrawn, compensation is generally allowed to him to the extent of the actual loss which he is proved to have sustained in disposing of his *depôts*.

The commissariat enter into contracts not only for army, navy, and convict services, but for all services required by the Government; for other services than their own, however, their duty is simply to enter into the contracts, and to see that the different rules and regulations are abided by. There is always, upon those occasions, an officer of the department concerned present at the opening of the tenders, who must give a concurrent recommendation for the acceptance of a particular tender. Sometimes the same contract embraces more services than one: for instance, the fresh meat contract is for the army, navy, and the convicts at Bermuda; and a naval and a convict officer are present, as well as the commissariat officer, and join in the recommendation for the acceptance of the tender, the schedule being signed by the officer commanding the troops for the army, by the officer commanding the naval forces for the navy, and by the governor of the colony for the convict service.

In all other cases of works and buildings, the same principles are followed in making the contract.

That is open competition, and the lowest tender is received, unless there is some reason for rejecting it.

The contract system is extended to sales by the commissariat, the most important of them being sales of Treasury bills. No Treasury bill can be sold without going through almost the same processes as are followed in obtaining supplies of food. The advertisements are circulated by the senior commissariat officer stating that tenders will be received for cash in the current coin of the country in exchange for Treasury bills. But there are other things, such as the hides and offal of cattle, empty packages, and stores not wanted, that are liable to accumulate, which are disposed of to a contractor, who, as the result of competition, is willing to take, from time to time, the surplus quantity that may have accumulated.

If, from any reason, there are difficulties in entering into a contract, the commissariat officer has full liberty to go into the market and get the article in the best way he can; but he is instructed to establish the price to be paid by taking a tender for the article in writing, and he then obtains the approval of the officer commanding for its acceptance. It may happen that he must make the purchases without tender. An army in the field may be the best instance of that, and in such case he makes the best purchases he can, and supports the charge as to the reasonableness of the price by a certificate signed by two merchants, or he occasionally employs an agent, and allows the lowest customary commission. But those are the exceptions, the rule being, tender and contract, if it is possible.

In order to ascertain the characters of the persons tendering for the different services that they have to supply, and also of their securities, the commissariat officers make the best inquiry they can from the bankers or from the parties best able to inform them; but they must get information. If the information with respect to any one is not satisfactory, it is a sufficient reason for at once rejecting his tender.

The character of the contractor enters largely into the question. If the commissariat officers have had experience of the party, by his having previously been a contractor, and not having performed his contract, that may be a reason for rejecting his tender, if he had so decidedly failed to fulfil it as to show that he was incompetent to fulfil his contracts in future, and it would be so considered.

The system works most admirably; it enlists commercial enterprise into the public service, and obtains for the Government supplies of a proper quality, and at fair market rates.

The system abroad has been in use for fifty years, with perfect safety; it may be more than that probably. The system at home has been partly for the troops to supply themselves with provisions under regimental contracts. It was different in England from what it was in Ireland. In England the late Ordnance department entered into contracts for the supply of bread and meat to the troops; but in Ireland the troops supplied themselves by regimental contract. When the stoppage was reduced from the maximum of 6*d.* to a fixed rate of 4½*d.*, in order to enable the soldier to obtain an evening meal, it was thought that as the cost would exceed 4½*d.*,

the Government was bound to enter into all the contracts, and the duty thenceforth devolved upon the commissariat; but that is only within the last two years.

The general tenor of the form of contract is, that the meat is to be of a certain quality, described in the contract; and bread also. If the supply does not come up to that quality, it is subject to be inspected by a Board of Survey, to be appointed by the commanding officer of the regiment, and then rejected, and a quantity to replace this rejection is to be purchased by the commissariat, and charged to the contractors.

The contract contains a penalty for non-fulfilment, which depends upon the extent of the contract; and varies in different districts.

The scale of penalties is established at a rate which is sufficient to induce the contractor to fulfil the terms of his contract. It seldom happens that the penalty needs to be enforced, and should it be necessary there is always in the hands of the commissariat a sum due on supplies already furnished which is in itself a certain security. It occasionally happens that the surety undertakes to carry on the contract to avoid payment of the penalty.

It is desirable to have a single contractor for each single district, speaking of Great Britain. There are forty-six contracts entered into in Great Britain for bread, and as many for meat, and almost as many for forage, and for each of those a single contract exists.

The money value of each contract for bread depends entirely upon what number of troops are stationed in the district. The annual value may be between 2,000*l.*, or even less, and 20,000*l.*

BOOTS.

Boots were formerly supplied by the colonel as part of the clothing, but they are now to be provided by the War Department. In July 1856 there were 18,000 pairs in stock. The average price paid for soldiers' boots per pair to the contractors, has varied from 8*s.* 9*d.* to 7*s.* 2*d.* The trial boots vary in price from 9*s.* 3*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.*

BREAD, MEAT, AND FORAGE.

The average cost of bread, meat, and forage for the troops in the several districts or counties in Great Britain for twelve months was as follows. The average cost of bread was 191,600*l.*; meat, 372,680*l.*; and forage, 177,370*l.*: total, 741,110*l.* The average cost of the same for the several districts or counties in Ireland, was—bread, 70,784*l.*; meat, 124,613*l.*; forage, 66,802*l.*: total, 271,199. These calculations are based upon the present strength, but it is subject to variation accordingly as the force may be increased or diminished. The amounts represent the sums payable to the contractors, but the charge against the public is abated to the extent of the stoppage of 4½*d.* for every ration of bread and meat, and of 8½*d.* for every ration of forage for officers' horses.

ENGINEERS' DEPARTMENT.

The Royal Engineer Department generally provides for the execution of every work by contract; sometimes in special cases, and particularly abroad, it is necessary to execute work by day work, under superintendence, where sufficient competition or good contracts cannot be got. In the great majority of instances, however, the works are executed by contract, and the general rule is, to put up every work to unlimited competition; a drawing is made of the work, a specification is prepared, and an advertisement is published in the papers stating that a certain work is to be erected, and that all necessary documents for understanding what that work is to be are to be seen and copies had at the Royal Engineer Office, and a day is named for the receipt of tenders at the office of the Director-general of Contracts in London.

Of course, the Engineer Department considers what conditions it is necessary to insert in any agreement, and furnishes copies of those conditions to all persons desirous of competing for the execution of the work, and the action of the Director-general of Contracts is simply that of controlling the action of the Royal Engineer Department, and seeing that every proper means has been taken to let everybody who wishes to tender have a fair chance of obtaining the contract for the work which is to be erected. The Director-general of Contracts does not control the Engineer Department as to the nature of the conditions to be inserted into any contract; the whole of the details are worked out entirely by the Engineer Department; and the Director-general of Contracts exercises only a controlling power to see that all the rules for the making of contracts are really observed.

At the time the contractors apply at the office of the Engineer Department for copies of the specifications, and for forms of tender, each leaves his name and address, and the names and addresses of two persons willing to become his securities for the due performance of the contract. Inquiries are made by the officers of engineers among civilians and among themselves, from one district to another, as to the qualifications, character, and ability of the parties who desire to contract for the work, and as to the solvency and general character of their proposed securities; and having got up as much information as they can obtain, they send that information to the Director-general of Contracts, and the Director-general of Contracts is guided in his consideration of the various offers by the reports of the engineers upon the spot.

There is another class of contracts, such as repairing broken glass, repairing roofs, and so on. These current repairs, which are constantly being required, are provided for by running contracts, for three years. The manner in which they are entered into is this: a list or schedule of prices is established, at which the contractor is to engage to provide materials and workmanship for all works required of him during the three years; and advertisements are made that tenders are required for the

performance of those works during three years, at so much per cent. above or below the schedule prices. These tenders are received in the office of the Director-general of Contracts, and the same course is then pursued in respect of them as for specific contracts for the larger works. The general system being, both for the triennial contracts and for the specific contracts, that unlimited competition should be the rule, exceptions are made whenever it would seem unwise to follow such a system; and the Director-general of Contracts therefore departs from it occasionally, at the recommendation of the Inspector-general of Fortifications. For instance, if a building is required to be erected in a particular style of architecture, say the mediæval style, which requires that the contractor, who is to execute it, should be himself acquainted, or have others under him who are acquainted with the details of that architecture, the competition for the erection of such a building should be confined to persons who have carried out similar works elsewhere, and who therefore hold out a reasonable prospect of being able to execute the work in a satisfactory manner.

SHELLS.

The prime cost of making one ton of the various shells used in the service is as follows:—the 13 inch cost, for making, 1*l*. 12*s*. 0½*d*., pig iron and waste in melting, per ton, 4*l*. 15*s*. 4*d*.—total, 6*l*. 7*s*. 4½*d*.; the cost of the 10 inch, 6*l*. 7*s*. 4½*d*.; 8 inch, 6*l*. 8*s*. 5*d*.; 32 pounders, 6*l*. 11*s*. 7½*d*.; 24 pounders, 6*l*. 13*s*. 3½*d*.; 12 pounders, 7*l*. 2*s*. 1*d*.; 8 inch diaphragm, 8*l*. 14*s*. 7*d*.; 32 pounder diaphragm, 9*l*. 12*s*. 9*d*.; 24 pounder diaphragm, 10*l*. 1*s*. 0½*d*.; 12 pounder diaphragm, 12*l*. 7*s*.; 9 pounder diaphragm, 12*l*. 9*s*. 8½*d*.; 6 pounder diaphragm, 14*l*. 19*s*. 2*d*. The contract price per ton ranged from 11*l*. 15*s*. for the 13 inch shell, to 73*l*. for the 6 pounder, showing a considerable saving per ton.

The prime cost of making 1,000 naval fuzes is 185*l*. 18*s*. 5½*d*.; the price paid to contractors for 1,000 fuzes, at 4*s*. each, 200*l*.; saving effected per 1,000, 114*l*. 1*s*. 6½*d*.

The cost of the manufacture of 1,000 shrapnel sockets is 4*l*. 3*s*. 2*d*.; the price paid to contractors for 1,000 sockets, at 1*s*. each, 50*l*.; saving effected, in making 1,000 sockets, 45*l*. 16*s*. 10*d*.

No. XXXIX.—WORKMEN.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 15th Feb., 1856, for Return of the Number of Persons summarily Convicted and Committed to Prison in the several Counties of England and Ireland, for Breach of Contract in neglecting work or leaving service during each of the years 1854 and 1855. (Mr. M'Mahon.) (441.)

THE number of persons imprisoned for breach of contract in neglecting work or leaving service was, in England, 2,427 in 1854, and 1,541 in 1855; in Wales, 102 in 1854, and 109 in 1855; and in Ireland, 686 in 1854, and 695 in 1855. Total, 3,215 in 1854, and 2,345 in 1855.

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No. XL.—COMMISSIONS OF INQUIRY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 10th April, 1856, for Return of the number of Commissions of Inquiry appointed since the year 1830, distinguishing each, and if expired, the date thereof, and the expense of each, &c., to the present period. (Mr. Locke King.) (415.)

THE aggregate expense of commissions of inquiry since the year 1830 is 768,438*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.* The Corrupt Practices at Elections Commission cost 15,446*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* The Indian Law Commission, 11,157*l.* 0*s.* 1*d.* The Shipping Dues Commission, 7,093*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.* The Commission on the Practice and Process of Pleading in the Court of Chancery, 4,236*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* The French Claims Commission, 25,581*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* The Fine Arts Commission, 11,225*l.* Metropolitan Improvements, 8,970*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Burden on Land, 3,297*l.* Poor Law Boundary, 5,367*l.* 17*s.* 8*d.* From January 1833 to May 1855, there were appointed 51 commissions of inquiry.

No. XLI.—REGISTERS (SCOTLAND).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 13th March, 1856, for Return of all the Records or Registers, general or particular, in Scotland, other than Books of Courts for the Registration of Deeds, Sasines, Inhibitions, Adjudications, Protests, and every other Legal Instrument or Writ, &c. (Mr. Dunlop.) (398.)

THE registers kept by each sheriff's clerk are—1. Register of deeds and probative wills; 2. Register of protests; 3. Particular register of horning and expired charges; 4. Particulars of inhibition; Nos. 3 and 4 are transmissible periodically to the General Register House, Edinburgh. The registers kept by town clerks are—1. Register of Sasines of lands held burgage; 2. Register of deeds; and 3. Register of Protests. Tables of fees are established for searches. The expense attending a full official search for 40 years in regard to incumbrances on land, and writs affecting land, or the power of disposing it in the General Register at Edinburgh, and the Particular Registers at Glasgow, respectively; also in the Register of Adjudications, and general and particular Register of Inhibitions, respectively, is set down altogether at 12*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

No. XLII.—HAMPTON COURT AND KEW GARDENS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 10th July, 1856, for Return of the number of Visitors admitted to see the Apartments and Pictures at Hampton Court and the Gardens at Kew, during the year 1855; distinguishing the number in each month, and the number on the several Sundays. (Sir George Brooke Pechell.) (401.)

THE total number of visitors at Hampton Court Palace, in the year 1855, was 141,420, of whom 49,780 were on Sundays, and 91,640 on other days. The number of visitors at Kew was 313,816, of whom 178,194 were on Sundays, and 135,622 on other days.

No. XXXIII.—MINUTES OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, 1855-6.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE Minutes comprise the Order in Council, dated 25th February, 1856, for placing the Department of Science and Art under the Education Department. By a minute of the 14th July, 1855, the minute of the 2nd of April, 1853, for promoting voluntary assessments towards the expense of building schools in rural districts was extended to all parts (urban as well as rural) of Great Britain. By another minute of the 14th July the payment for all Queen's scholars was made uniform, viz. 23*l.* in the case of males, and 17*l.* in the case of females. Further payments to be made to them for travelling and private expenses, viz. males, first year, 4*l.*; second year, 6*l.*; females, first year, 3*l.*; second year, 4*l.* This volume contains a large amount of correspondence with inspectors of schools, the financial statement, and inspectors' reports for 1855.

Rev. T. C. Cook reported on Elementary Schools connected with the Church of England, in the counties of Middlesex, Hertford, Bedford, and Buckingham. In these districts there is accommodation provided for 48,309, and there is an average attendance of 36,504 children, the number actually present being 38,074. There were 223 certificated teachers, and 640 pupil teachers. The aggregate annual income was 44,550*l.*, and expenditure, 45,025*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.*, or an average income per scholar in attendance, 1*l.* 4*s.* 5½*d.*, and an average expenditure per scholar in attendance, 1*l.* 4*s.* 8½*d.* New schools were wanted in the metropolis. The average salaries of teachers—for schoolmasters, certificated, 99*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; uncertificated, 82*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.* Schoolmistresses, certificated, 67*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.*; uncertificated, 44*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.* Infants' schoolmistresses certificated, 65*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*; and uncertificated, 39*l.* 11*s.* A good proportion of masters are provided with house rent free. 32 per cent. of the children were paying 1*d.*, and less than 2*d.* per week; 52 per cent. were paying 2*d.*, and less than 3*d.*; 9 per cent. 3*d.*, and less than 4*d.*; 3½ per cent. paid 4*d.*; and 3½ per cent. over 4*d.* The report states that our national schools do not supply the wants of a class which peculiarly need assistance, viz. the small tradesman and skilled artisans; nor do they meet the want of another class, viz. that of the destitute, or profligate and vagabond poor.

Rev. H. W. Bellairs, M.A., reported on the schools inspected in the counties of Gloucester, Oxford, Warwick, Worcester, Hereford, and Monmouth. The number of schools inspected were 318, collected in 489 rooms. There were in these schools 188 certificated teachers, and 446 pupil teachers; and present at examination 35,433 children. The amount of income was 31,645*l.*, and of expenditure, 33,037*l.* The salaries of certificated schoolmasters, 88*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.*, and uncertificated, 57*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.* The inspector earnestly advocates the spread of religious education as the best means for reforming the character.

SERIES C.

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Rev. Frederic Watkins, B.D., reported on the schools inspected in the county of York. The number of schools inspected was 532, having accommodation for 68,716 children, whilst the average attendance in them during the year has been 43,592. The inspector complains of the tender age of the children, and their short stay at school. 79 per cent. of the children in Yorkshire schools are under ten years of age, and not 5 in 100 are turned thirteen. In twelve months 19,006 children have been admitted, and 16,851 have left, or 88 per cent.

Rev. E. Douglas Tinling, M.A., reported on the Church of England schools inspected in the counties of Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall. The number of schools inspected was 648, having accommodation for 39,121 children, and an attendance of 26,731. Here also the inspector complains of the early age at which the children are removed from school. The reformatory school in Bath does a great work among the juvenile offenders.

Rev. M. Mitchell, M.A., reported on the schools inspected in the counties of Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. The number of schools visited was 431, having an attendance of 30,438 children.

Rev. J. J. Blandford, B.A., reported on the schools inspected in the counties of Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, Rutland, and Northampton. The number of schools inspected was 927, having accommodation for 48,250 children, and average attendance of 28,250. At examination there were present 31,489 children. There were 137 certificated, and 251 uncertificated teachers.

Rev. W. H. Brqokfield, M.A., reported on the schools inspected in the counties of Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. The number of schools inspected was 800, having accommodation for 56,205 children, and an attendance of 38,426. The number present at examination was 40,294. The inspector showed by certain answers received in reply to two questions of the Church Catechism, that such lessons are often mechanically learnt without obtaining any solid instruction.

Rev. W. J. Kennedy, M.A., reported on the schools inspected in the county of Lancaster and the Isle of Man. The inspector states that there is a general improvement in schools under inspection, and points out some defects in the curriculum of study, and the want of better incomes for teachers. The number of schools inspected was 670, having accommodation for 64,162 children, and an average attendance of 38,464 children.

Rev. J. P. Norris, M.A., reported on the schools inspected in the counties of Chester, Salop, and Stafford. A considerable improvement was noticeable in the schools, the causes of which were an increased earnestness on the part of the teachers, the grant of prizes, and the introduction of night schools, &c. The inspector visited 968 schools, having accommodation for 66,977 children, and an average attendance of 39,465.

Rev. D. J. Stewart, M.A., reported on the schools inspected by him in the

counties of Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, and Westmoreland. The inspector gives a variety of tables tending to show that the average age of children at school is very low, not exceeding 10 years. The number of schools inspected was 306, having accommodation for 23,141 children, and an average attendance of 14,000.

Rev. W. Warburton inspected the schools of the counties of Berkshire, Hampshire, and Wiltshire, numbering 231, with accommodation for 16,240 children, with an average attendance of 10,551.

Rev. H. Longueville Jones reported on the Church of England schools in Wales. The inspector shows the want of navigation schools in the principal seaports of Wales. Education makes a steady progress in Wales. There is need of more extended support to all localities in Wales. The number of schools inspected was 313, with accommodation for 21,344 children, and an attendance of 14,183.

Mr. J. D. Morell, M.A., reported on the British schools, and the Wesleyan and other denominational schools in the north-western division of England, and in North Wales. As a whole, the year has been one of discouragement to the friends of popular education. The education of Wales is decidedly defective. While in England the proportion of children at schools, of all classes, ranges from 40 to 50 per cent of the whole number between 5 and 15 years of age, in the Principality it is only 30.2 per cent. Yet Sunday schools are very numerous, but in the Sunday schools the whole organ of communication is the Welsh language, while in the day schools it is almost exclusively English. The cause of deficiency in day school education in South Wales, is, that while the mass of the people are Dissenters, the chief efforts which have been made towards educating them emanate from the Church. The population in 1851 was 607,456. Of these, 324,567 were in attendance at the various churches and chapels, on Sunday March 30th, 1851; in proportion nearly double of what was found to be the case in England. Of these 324,567 actual attendants, only 69,896 (*i. e.* less than one-fourth) were in the Established Churches. The rest were distributed amongst the various bodies of Dissenters, together with about 2,500 Roman Catholics. In North Wales the proportion of Dissenters is considerably greater than in the South. The population in 1851 was 404,328 individuals: the number in actual attendance was 214,348, and the number in the Established Churches 39,729, *i. e.* less than one-fifth of the whole number of worshippers. The British school system is best adapted to Wales. The number of schools inspected by Mr. Morell was 305, with accommodation for 32,741 children, and an attendance of 19,927 children. The average salaries of certificated schoolmasters was 108*l.* 9*s.*, and uncertificated, 78*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*; of certificated schoolmistresses, 70*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*, uncertificated, 43*l.*

Mr. Matthew Arnold, M.A., reported on the British schools and the Wesleyan and other denominational schools in the midland, metropolitan,

and south-eastern division of England. The inspector regretted the want of supervision by ministers of religion. This is accounted partly from the fact that the minister has in many cases adhered to the voluntary principle, when the lay members of the committee have abandoned it. In London there is great want of school accommodation. The inspector inspected 290 schools, having accommodation for 28,425 children, and an attendance of 18,692 children.

Mr. J. Bowstead, M.A., reported on the British schools and on the Wesleyan and other denominational schools in the south-western counties of England, and in the southern counties of Wales. The number of schools receiving grants has increased from 159 to 187. The children at the schools are younger than ever. The per-centage of children on the register under 10 years of age has risen from 65·13 to 66·94, whilst the per-centage of those over ten has fallen from 34·87 to 33·06. The greatest evil, therefore, with which education in this country has to contend—the premature transfer of children from school to work, from learning to earning—is on the increase. There is a great want of school funds. Ragged schools should have stipendiary monitors, and reformatory schools should be managed by specially trained teachers. The schools inspected were 350, with accommodation for 27,511 children, having an attendance of 19,000.

Mr. J. S. Laurie reported on the British schools and the Wesleyan and other denominational schools in the north-eastern division of England, comprising the counties of Northumberland, Durham, York, Lincoln, Nottingham, Rutland, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Norfolk, and Suffolk. The inspector referred to the ignorance generally prevailing of the Minutes of Council on Education, and suggested the publication and gratuitous distribution of a "Manual of Public Instruction." The schools inspected were 334, having accommodation for 33,130 children, and an average attendance of 18,536 children.

Mr. T. W. M. Marshall reported on the Roman Catholic schools in England and in the South of Wales. The inspector gives a variety of evidence showing the youthful age of the children at school. Of 382,236 children in daily average attendance, about 156,000 are under 8 years of age, 34,000 are between 12 and 14, and about 5,800 are over 14; and of the same number, 114,000, or 29·35 per cent., have only been one year at school, and 15,000, or 3·9 per cent., have been four years at school. The factory has everywhere higher claims than the school. The inspector visited 230 schools, having accommodation for 11,926 children, and an average attendance of 8,988 children.

Mr. Scott Nasmyth Stokes, B.A., reported on the Roman Catholic schools in the northern division of Great Britain. The inspector visited 345 schools, having accommodation for 25,805, and an average attendance of 19,840 children.

Dr. Woodford reported on the schools in connection with the Church of Scotland. The schools visited were 770, having accommodation for 36,212 children, and an average attendance of 32,891. The inspector made some strictures on the method of imparting knowledge, showing that the progress is more apparent than real. The report contains some particulars of the Heriot Hospital and School.

Mr. John Gordon reported on the schools connected with the Church of Scotland in the West of Scotland. He inspected 370 schools, having accommodation for 21,263 children, and an attendance of 18,570 children.

Dr. James Cummins and Mr. Charles E. Wilson, M.A., reported on the schools in Scotland connected with the Established Church. The schools visited were 695. The accommodation was for 41,382 children, and the average attendance, 33,015.

Rev. Thomas Wilkinson, M.A., reported on the Episcopal Church schools in Scotland. The schools were generally in a prosperous condition. The number of schools visited was 180, having accommodation for 8,442 children, and an average attendance of 6,099 children.

No. XXXIV.—SCIENCE AND ART.

Third Report on the Department of Science and Art.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

I. *Metropolitan Institutions, comprising the Geological Surveys, Mining Schools, Museum of Practical Geology, and Mining Record Office.*—The geological survey of Great Britain executed extends over nearly 1,700 square miles. One sheet and fifteen quarter-sheets of the trigonometrical survey, geologically coloured, have been published since the last report, embracing an area of 2,400 square miles. Towards the close of the previous year the geological survey of Scotland was begun, and now about 117 square miles of Haddingtonshire have been mapped on the six-inch scale, and will be published on the maps of one-inch scale. In Ireland about 1,000 square miles have been surveyed. The Mining Record Office is reconstructed. Mr. Hunt, the keeper of the records, states that the annual drain on the coal fields is about 64,000,000 of tons. In the Metropolitan School of Science there have been given lectures on chemistry, physics, metallurgy, mining, mineralogy, geology, natural history, and applied mechanics. In the Museum of Practical Geology the number of visitors during last year was 13,000.

The training schools of art, female art schools, and museum and library, and metropolitan district schools, are all in operation. During last year 79 masters in training have attended the classes on an average for nine months six days each. The Museum of Ornamental Art has been visited by 78,427 persons, against 104,823 visitors in the previous year. A circu-

lating museum has been formed with the view of improving the state of art manufactures in provincial towns. The Library of Art has received 7,242 visits, being an average daily attendance of 30 persons. The Museum of Irish Industry progresses favourably. The number of visitors was 25,008. The Royal Dublin Society is in an efficient state, but the number of visitors to the different branches of the society is greatly decreased. To the Botanic Garden there were 30,850 visits, against 40,634 in 1854; to the Museum of Natural History, 12,786 visits, against 21,427 in 1854; to the Agricultural Museum, 24,763 visits, against 14,563 in 1853. The Zoological Society of Dublin had since its opening 202,571 visits, of whom 138,019 were admitted during the last year. Lectures were given at the Royal Dublin Society on chemistry, natural history, geology, and physics. The Normal Lace School, Dublin, had 76 pupils admitted, of whom 19 superintend lace schools in the country, and 17 are now on the books. The Scottish Industrial and Natural History Museum had in the last years 100,947 visits. Altogether, the number of persons who visited the museum and libraries of the department was 331,000, being an increase of about 56 per cent. above the number of the previous year.

II. *Aid to schools under the inspection of the Department having reference to secondary education.*—The number of pupils in the schools of art is 10,864, while the public schools taught through their agency have 18,988 children under instruction, making an aggregate number of 29,848 persons who are taught drawing, against 17,109 in 1854. The schools for scientific instruction have had a considerable advancement. Trade schools have been formed, the first of which was founded at Wandsworth, chiefly by the exertions of the Rev. Dr. Booth, and is now attended by 100 pupils. There are now 18 schools of science, giving instruction either by systematic classes or by lectures, to 10,007 pupils.

III. *Aid to schools not connected with the Department. Primary instruction.*—The results of an examination of drawings sent up from the training college at Christmas, showed a great advance in the previous year. The total number of teachers who have competed amounted to 1,193, and to these 456 prizes have been awarded in the various stages.

IV. *Aid to schools by the formation and diffusion of examples and illustrations for study.*—During the last year 192 schools have purchased examples at an average cost of 7*l.* 11*s.* to each school, and at a cost to the department of 1,007*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

V. *Public services in connection with the Department.*—The office for the registration of designs continues to receive fees sufficient to meet the expense. The total number of complete registrations during the past year amounted to 4,391, showing a deficiency of 453. Measures were taken by this department for ensuring an adequate representation of British industry in Paris at the international exhibition.

No. XXXV.—CHURCH RATES.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 10th August, 1854, for Return of all Moneys received and expended by Churchwardens and Chapelwardens in England and Wales, from Easter 1853 to Easter 1854; distinguishing the sums received by them from Church Rates, from other sources of official receipts applicable in aid, or in lieu, of Church Rates; and distinguishing from other kinds of Expenditure defrayed by them all expenses incurred in building, improving, and maintaining in repair Churches or Chapels, and any buildings or fences appertaining thereto: also stating with respect to Parishes or Places where no Church Rate has been made, whether opposition has been the cause thereof: also an account of any sum, or sums, of money borrowed under the provisions of any Act of Parliament on the security of Church Rates. (Sir William Clay.) 1st July, 1856. (323).

THE total amount received for church rates in 1853-4 was, in England, 465,521*l.* 4*s.* 10½*d.*; in Wales, 17,041*l.* 3*s.* 7½*d.* Total 482,562*l.* 8*s.* 6½*d.* The total amount expended, in England, 448,967*l.* 5*s.* 5½*d.*; in Wales, 15,576*l.* 15*s.* 3½*d.* Total, 464,544*l.* 0*s.* 9½*d.* The sum borrowed on security of church rates under any Act of Parliament was, in England, 313,178*l.* 11*s.* 11*d.*; in Wales, 5,020*l.* 6*s.* 6½*d.* Total 318,198*l.* 18*s.* 5½*d.* The return shows the several places where church rates have been paid or refused; but the sources of income and the objects of expenditure differ materially in many places, and no general rate is prevalent.

 No. XXXVI.—NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Report on Normal Schools for the year 1855, by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

IN 1855 there were 34 training schools under inspection—29 in England, and 5 in Scotland. The number of students on the 31st March, 1856, was 1,927, for whom lodging was provided on the premises, and 1,601 resident, exclusive of 301 students in Scotland not lodged on the premises of the training school. The number of officers on the establishment was 261, including three lecturers on History, four on Literature, six on Geography, five on Mathematics, three on Physical Science, and one on Chemistry.

Rev. J. C. Cook, M.A., reported on the Church of England training schools for schoolmistresses. In the schools there was accommodation for 767 students; there were in residence, 641; trained last year, 355; admitted last year, 484; and trained since 1836, 4,163. The total

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expenditure for 649 students amounted to 22,544*l.* 0*s.* 6½*d.*; for house-keeping only, 12,671*l.* 8*s.* 7½*d.*; for tuition, 5,730*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* The subscriptions and donations amounted to 6,820*l.* 15*s.* 7½*d.*; the fee paid by private students, their friends and patrons, 6,790*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.*; by Government for Queen's scholars, 4,330*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*; and for successful candidates at the Christmas examination, 3,859*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*; fees of practising schools, 557*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*; other sums, 232*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* The expense per head was 34*l.* 19*s.* 0¼*d.*; the income, donation, &c., per head, 10*l.* 19*s.* 5½*d.*; by students, 10*l.* 10*s.* 6¼*d.*; by Government, 12*l.* 3*s.* 11¼*d.*; sundries, 1*l.* 11*s.* 5½*d.*

Mr. M. Arnold, M.A., reported on the training institutions of the British and Foreign School Society. The account for the year from February 1854, to July, 1855, shows a receipt of 17,358*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*, and an expenditure of 14,191*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.*, leaving a balance carried to capital account of 3,166*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.* From April 1854 to April, 1855, there were admitted to the Normal College 148 young men, and 157 young females; and there were on the list, on the 1st April, 1855, 65 young men, and 74 young females.

Mr. J. Bowstead, M.A., reported on the Wesleyan Training Institution, in the Horseferry Road, Westminster. The institution being calculated to accommodate 100 students, it results from the rule as to two years' training for each, that about fifty teachers will go forth from it annually, a supply apparently more than sufficient for the present number of Wesleyan day schools in Great Britain, which, at the close of 1854, was stated to be 434. It was stated, however, at the same time and on the same authority, that of the Wesleyan Education Committee, that the number of Sunday schools belonging to the body was 4,099, and the number of scholars in those schools 401,763. It is obvious from these figures that the promotion of a distinct week-day education by the Wesleyan denomination is yet in its infancy; that if the present movement for that end be continued, it is capable of receiving a much larger development; and, consequently, that there is little danger of overstocking the market with teachers fitted by special preparation for this class of schools.

The cost of the institution for the year ended 31st December 1854, was 4,550*l.* 19*s.* and the receipts 2,870*l.* 0*s.* 8*d.*, leaving a balance carried to general account of 1,680*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*

Mr. T. W. M. Marshall reported on the Roman Catholic Training School at St. Mary's at Hammersmith. The number of students now in residence is only 13, of whom 7 are Queen's scholars.

No. XXXII.—METROPOLIS TURNPIKE ROADS.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to consider the expediency of removing the Toll-gates now maintained by the Commissioners of Metropolis Roads, and the means by which such Roads shall be kept in repair in case the Tolls shall be abolished. (333.)

THE Committee was nominated on the 5th June, 1856, and consisted of Lord R. Grosvenor, Mr. Bramston, Sir John Shelley, Sir William Joliffe, Colonel Pennant, Sir. B. Hall, Mr. Hildyard, Mr. Butler, Mr. Wyvill, Mr. Hasting Russell, Mr. Bonham Carter, Mr. Alcock, Mr. Alderman Challis, Mr. Grenfell, and Mr. Wrightson.

The Committee reported that they were impressed with the inconvenience of the existence of toll-gates in the populous districts of the metropolis, and of the importance of providing, if possible, some mode of remedying this inconvenience, but that they were unwilling, at this late period of the session, and considering the impossibility of being able to complete the hearing of the evidence which has been offered to them on behalf of the various parties interested, including the parishes through which the metropolitan roads pass, to offer any opinion. They have, therefore, come to the determination of reporting the evidence which has been already given, and recommending the re-appointment of the Committee next session.

The witnesses examined were, Messrs. Henry Browse, surveyor to the Metropolis Roads Commission, J. W. Lyon, V. C. Wright, Rev. John Philip Gell, H. J. Neild, R. T. Swain, Joseph Pattison, Augustus Lines, James Fawcett, Henry Gill, John Barber, Arthur Ashpitel, J. E. Bradfield, and the Earl of Lonsdale.

The following items are extracted from the evidence:—

TOLL-GATES.

In March 1856 there were 36 gates upon the whole of the trust, and 81 side-bars. In 1827 there were 45 gates and 45 side-bars. The property near a toll-gate is in all cases considerably prejudiced. In the opinion of Mr. Ashpitel, not only the property in the neighbourhood of the gate but the entire property of the parish is affected by the toll-bars. Lord Lonsdale state that they are an impediment to the building of houses. The tolls collected at the gates lying within the metropolitan district, in consequence of the immense number of diverging streets and lanes that intersect the district, are very extensively evaded. The pleasure traffic pays the smallest proportion of the tolls. The amount of tolls collected to the 25th March, 1855, was 60,397*l*.

OMNIBUSES.

All the omnibuses run to the gate and pay no toll; they do not go through the gate. Omnibus traffic causes a great wear of the roads.

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There are now under sixteen different omnibus companies in the metropolis, but of distinct companies there are but two, the Richmond and the London Omnibus Company; the others are associations to prevent racing on the roads, and dividing the same. The district fares are regulated more by the amount of population in the district than by competition of tolls. The amount paid in tolls by omnibuses is about 26,000*l.* a year. The proportion of the whole expense of keeping omnibuses from tolls is five per cent. In two instances, omnibuses communicating with the Regent's-park up the villas into Holloway were taken off on account of the toll-gate. The abolition of the tolls would rather lead to increased accommodation than to a reduction of fares, though in some instances reductions would most probably be made. An omnibus holding 12 inside passengers at 4*d.* a piece produces 4*s.*; that omnibus passes through a gate on which the charge is 6*d.*; so that the toll is an eighth part of the receipt.

METROPOLIS ROAD COMMISSION.

The Commission was constituted by Act of Parliament the 7th George IV. c. 142, in 1826. The Commission was also affected by the 10th George IV. c. 59. In 1826 there were 14 trusts. About 130 miles of road were delivered over to the Commission. The Marylebone and Finchley trusts and the New North Road trust are also under the care of the Commissioners, but the parishes repair the roads. The Commissioners are elected under Act of Parliament, and they to some extent represent certain localities. The Commissioners are very anxious to remove the toll-bars, but the doubt whether the parishes would take the road or some part of them, or the doubt whether Parliament would agree to the proposal, has prevented them going any further in that direction.

CHELSEA.

In 1845 the roads in Chelsea parish were given up to the parish by their act. Still the Commissioners maintain a piece of a road in that parish, to the extent of a mile and 198 yards, at an expense of 850*l.* per annum, amounting to a rate of 1*d.* in the pound. Taking the road by the parish cost an additional rate of 6*d.* The improvement rate is 1*s.* 6*d.*; viz., 6*d.* for lighting, 6*d.* for improvement, and 6*d.* for highways. The roads are altogether 23 miles in length, including about 2½ miles formerly repaired by the Metropolis Commission. Since the removal of the toll-gate there has been a great increase of omnibuses and a reduction of fares. The assessment to the relief of the poor in Ladyday 1856 was 201,196*l.* The average sum of 300*l.* per mile, or 6,800*l.*, is put down by the vestry of the parish as the cost of paving materials, cartage, labour, and watering. Previously to 1845 the rates for paving, lighting, &c., were 1*s.* 3½*d.* in the pound; subsequently they were 1*s.* 6*d.*

CITY ROAD.

The cost of a mile in the City Road is 2,300*l*. The average wear of granite there is rather less than three inches. Were the toll-gate abolished the loss would be about 3,000*l*. a year. The cost of keeping up the gate and side-bars is about 5*l*. a week. The cost of the road is 2,600*l*. per annum. The amount of traffic that passed through the City Road on Saturday, June 21, 1856, from twelve on Friday night to twelve on Saturday night, was—omnibuses, 800; cabs, 1,265; two-horse carriages, 78; one-horse carriages, 290; one-horse carts and vans, 130; two-horse waggons, 23; four-horse waggons, 8; saddle horses, 80; gross amount, 3,442 vehicles.

HACKNEY.

Applications have frequently been made by this parish for the removal of the toll. The inhabitants suffer great inconvenience from it. The abolition of the toll would greatly improve the property all over the parish.

ISLINGTON, HAMPSTEAD, AND HIGHGATE.

In 1855 the Commissioners reduced the tolls in the Hampstead and Highgate districts from 3*d*. to 2*d*., at a cost of 3,500*l*. The loss of removing the Islington gate would be about 3,500*l*. a year. The Islington district was let that year for 14,500*l*. If the three advanced gates—the Islington, the St. Pancras, and the Hampstead Road—were removed it would lose to the Commissioners 10,000*l*. The tolls on the Highgate, Hampstead, and Islington gates, have in the last six years produced 16,000*l*. and 17,000*l*. over and above the expenditure on the roads. The traffic from Wednesday night, June 25, to 12 o'clock Thursday night, June, 26, 1856, in the Islington gate was—one-horse gigs, 131; one-horse cabs, 698; one-horse carriages, 380; two-horse carriages, 104; one-horse carts, 657; one-horse vans, 68; two-horse carts, 71; three-horse waggons, 19; four-horse waggons, 16; two-horse omnibuses, 634; three-horse omnibuses, 8; four-horse omnibuses, 6; horses not drawing, 45; beasts, 5. Total, 2,792 vehicles.

KENSINGTON.

There are two districts and two separate toll gates in the parish. Persons wishing to pass from one part of the parish to another would be compelled to pay two tolls. They can neither go east, west, north, or south without having a toll to pay. The parish of Kensington would not be prepared to take the roads upon themselves, because they consider that these roads are very largely used by a vast number of people, ten or twenty times the inhabitants of Kensington. The Commissioners intend to open Addison-road, so as to afford relief to the people at Kensington.

NOTTING HILL.

The turnpike gate has an injurious effect upon the population of the district, on account of the concentration of public-houses to meet the traffic stopping at the gate. The property outside the turnpike is also injured, and has always been below the value inside, which led to the collection of a large number of poor and ill-conditioned inhabitants. It is a ready resort for idlers of low character. The abolition of the gate in question is estimated at 1,600*l.*, and if the gate on the hill were abolished it would produce a loss of from 1,500*l.* to 2,000*l.*

REGENT STREET.

The expense of a mile in Regent Street in 1840 was 3,400*l.*; in 1842, 3,600*l.* The average wear of granite is $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The traffic that passed through Regent Street on Saturday, the 21st June, 1856, from twelve o'clock on Friday night till twelve o'clock on Saturday night, was—1,538 omnibuses; 4,853 cabs; 1,134 two-horse carriages; 1,138 one-horse vans and carts; 1,439 one-horse carriages; 194 two-horse waggons and carts; 34 three-horse waggons and carts; 9 four-horse waggons; and 196 saddle horses; making a total of 10,535 in 24 hours.

TRAFFIC OF GATES.

In the Cambridge Heath gate on Wednesday, June 25, there was a traffic of 54 one-horse gigs; 85 one-horse cabs; 97 one-horse carriages; 26 two-horse carriages; 464 one-horse carts; 24 one-horse vans; 40 two-horse carts; 19 two-horse vans; 23 three-horse waggons; 223 two-horse omnibuses; 3 three-horse omnibuses; and 5 four-horse omnibuses. Total, 1,063 vehicles and 4,236 horses. In the Chalk Farm gate, on the same day, the traffic was—42 one-horse gigs; 261 one-horse cabs; 185 one-horse carriages; 100 two-horse carriages; 471 one-horse vans; 73 one-horse vans; 18 two-horse vans; 30 two-horse vans; 29 three-horse waggons; 6 four-horse waggons; 70 two-horse omnibuses; 64 three-horse omnibuses. Total, 1,349 vehicles and 1,841 horses. In the Kentish Town gate, the traffic of Friday, the 27th June, was 1,233 vehicles, and 1,590 horses. In the Pancras Gate, the traffic of that day was 881 vehicles, and 1,046 horses. In the Maiden Lane Gate, on the Wednesday, 1,293 vehicles, and 2,371 horses. In the Ball's Pond Gate, on the same day, 819 vehicles, and 997 horses.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE.

The tolls of each district are applied to the reduction of the general debt, there not being a separate account of receipt and expenditure for each trust. The amount of tolls received in 1827-28, and in 1855-6, show a decrease of about 11,000*l.* The highest amount received by the Commissioners from tolls in any year was 83,497*l.* in 1837. The Commissioners have now a balance in their hands of 8,000*l.*, having paid a debt of 150,000*l.* since 1827.

No. XXXIII.—PILOTAGE.

*Abstract of Returns relating to Pilots and Pilotage in the United Kingdom. (354.)**[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]*

THE receipts and expenditure of the Corporation of Trinity House of Deptford, Stroud, in the year ending 31st December, 1855, show a receipt of 8,804*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*, and payments, 101,102*l.* 3*s.* 6½*d.* There was a balance from 1854 of 1,382*l.* 15*s.* 0½*d.*, and a balance carried forward to 1856 of 85*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.* The total amount received for pilotage inwards and outwards in the year 1855 was as follows:—

	INWARDS.						OUTWARDS,					
	British Vessels.		Foreign Vessels.		Total.		British Vessels.		Foreign Vessels.		Total.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Port of London -	38,227	0 7	32,127	11 10	70,354	12 5	23,160	11 4	11,553	9 10	34,514	1 2
Aberdovey -	62	17 1	62	17 1	74	1 8	74	1 8
Beaumaris -	294	4 10	4	1 3	298	6 1	236	15 3	10	5 6	247	0 9
Bridgewater -	516	19 8	8	19 4	525	19 0	268	10 5	4	3 11	272	14 4
Bridport -	102	0 4	6	3 0	108	3 4	27	18 3	1	13 6	29	11 9
Casnarvon -	33	3 0	0	13 0	33	16 0	170	0 6	0	13 0	170	13 6
Carlisle -	38	5 11	38	5 11	8	11 9	8	11 9
Colchester -	1	16 0	41	4 0	43	0 0	12	3 0	36	10 6	48	13 6
Cowes, Isle of												
Wight -	2,554	17 5	1,662	15 6	4,217	12 11	1,767	0 6	1,277	19 6	3,045	0 0
Dartmouth -	108	7 9	77	1 9	185	9 6	71	1 8	40	13 4	111	15 0
Exeter -	561	10 11	45	10 0	607	0 11	207	3 0	14	16 4	221	19 4
Falmouth -	1,924	8 9	2,451	18 9	4,376	7 6	1,355	7 0	1,427	11 6	2,782	18 6
Fleetwood -	113	9 8	2	10 0	115	19 8	39	17 4	0	15 8	40	13 0
Fowey -	126	2 11	73	3 6	199	6 5	85	5 5	33	18 0	119	3 11
Gloucester -	713	15 5	257	16 4	971	11 9	608	3 6	154	2 2	762	5 8
Harwich -	165	1 7	285	10 9	450	12 4	171	12 4	47	2 0	218	14 4
Holyhead -	62	8 8	22	2 4	85	1 0	66	1 7	22	2 2	88	3 9
Ipswich -	493	3 0	46	5 6	539	8 6	416	17 0	31	6 9	448	4 9
Lowestoff -	296	6 5	81	6 4	377	12 9	143	13 4	66	6 11	210	0 3
Maldon -	155	9 8	33	8 6	188	18 2	105	15 1	17	2 9	122	17 10
Milford -	139	5 6	57	7 0	196	12 6	1'6	18 6	37	9 6	154	8 0
Neath -	784	17 10	21	3 6	806	1 4	946	16 9	32	9 11	979	6 8
Newhaven -	263	6 4	6	17 6	270	3 10	126	2 10	3	12 9	129	15 7
Newport -	328	8 2	383	15 5	712	3 7	814	19 0	682	10 9	1,497	9 0
Padstow -	198	15 3	4	14 10	203	10 1	29	6 9	0	2 4	29	9 1
Penzance -	76	18 6	69	3 6	146	2 0	65	15 6	47	19 6	109	15 0
Plymouth -	969	14 10	552	16 8	1,522	11 6	778	15 0	366	18 11	1,145	13 11
Poole -	345	0 9	26	15 9	371	16 6	284	2 6	13	19 0	298	1 6
Portmadoc -	218	4 9	3	8 9	221	13 6	214	7 3	3	8 8	217	15 11
Rochester -	47	6 9	36	11 0	83	17 9	77	17 6	72	12 0	150	9 6
Rye -	51	9 7	12	8 2	63	17 9	24	8 6	6	10 5	30	18 11
Scilly -	330	13 10	169	11 5	500	5 3	304	11 10	167	10 11	472	2 9
Shoreham -	532	17 3	31	18 9	564	16 0	206	1 11	9	17 2	215	19 1
Southampton -	970	7 4	148	5 2	1,118	12 6	1,115	2 9	185	6 6	1,300	9 3
Teignmouth -	272	12 11	2	14 0	275	6 11	134	7 9	1	1 10	136	9 7
Wells -	82	6 9	82	6 9	38	5 3	38	5 3
Weymouth -	182	4 0	74	11 8	256	15 8	95	0 6	72	9 4	167	9 10
Woodbridge -	232	15 7	5	19 3	238	14 10	234	18 8	3	5 3	238	3 11
Yarmouth -	554	11 3	198	10 9	753	2 0	355	14 3	172	2 0	527	16 3

SERIES D.—RAILWAYS, SHIPPING, &c.

	INWARDS.						OUTWARDS.					
	British Vessels.		Foreign Vessels.		Total.		British Vessels.		Foreign Vessels.		Total.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Trinity House:												
Mill & Grimsby	1,431	16 0½	2,526	7 10½	4,097	14 6½	934	1 11	1,874	12 0	2,898	11 9
Great Grimsby	302	8 4½	323	1 0½	624	19 5	254	6 3	195	12 6	449	18 9
Goole	237	5 1	61	13 0	298	18 1	192	7 9	46	6 0	238	13 9
Gainsborough	24	11 7	6	14 6	33	6 1	31	19 10	2	19 0	34	18 10
Wisbeach	127	10 11	56	0 2½	183	11 1½	74	5 9	27	7 7½	101	13 4½
Spalding	128	1 0	4	16 3	132	17 3	46	1 10	2	12 0	48	13 10
Trinity House:												
Newcastle-												
upon-Tyne	12,347	14 7	4,554	7 10	16,902	2 5	19,300	4 11	5,756	17 7	24,957	2 6
Arundel	221	1 7	1	1 6	222	3 1	103	14 5½	0	10 9	104	5 2½
Berwick-upon-												
Tweed	170	0 7	20	0 8	191	4 3	44	3 3	6	12 11	50	16 2
Boston	164	10 7	22	2 0	186	12 7	124	11 4	8	17 6	132	8 10
Bristol	3,592	13 3	4,320	0 11	7,912	14 2						
Cardiff	494	12 3	951	17 2	1,446	9 5	3,675	2 3	3,318	8 6	6,993	10 9
Hackney and							920	9 11	1,699	0 8	2,619	10 7
Clay	121	9 9	4	7 6	125	17 3	98	9 0	3	13 3	102	2 3
Douglas	8	16 6	10	13 0	19	9 6	2	14 0	1	12 0	4	6 0
King's Lynn	1,109	3 11	55	10 4	1,164	14 2	733	1 10	37	7 4	761	11 2
Lancaster	31	9 6	31	19 6	18	9 6	18	19 6
Liverpool	21,816	18 8	14,834	1 10	36,651	0 6	10,420	13 8	9,232	6 1	19,652	19 9
Llanelli	1,910	18 10	83	4 4	1,987	3 2	1,619	16 2	60	19 11	1,680	18 1
Scotland:												
Aberbrothwick	484	3 6	62	1 2	546	4 8	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aberdeen	905	14 0	43	16 0	1,049	10 0	579	19 0	583	4 0
Ayr	178	19 6	1	19 3½	180	18 10	181	17 11	183	17 3
Glasgow	1,336	14 1	74	15 9	1,411	9 10	1,640	12 7	107	16 0	1,748	15 9
Greenock	538	12 6	79	2 2½	617	14 8	729	13 8	141	19 10	871	13 5
Irvine	5	4 9	5	4 9	162	3 4½	162	3 4½
Kilbaldy	5	18 6	7	8 6	13	7 0	—	—	—	—	—	—
Leith	631	3 3	437	7 2	1,068	10 5	327	3 7	421	9 1	748	12 8
Lossiemouth	91	12 3	1	10 9	93	3 0	91	12 3	1	10 9	93	3 0
Macduff	98	8 1	17	1 6	115	9 7	83	5 3	16	16 0	101	1 3
Peterhead	226	1 0	17	8 6	243	9 6	226	1 0	17	8 6	243	9 6
Wick	343	10 0	103	0 9	447	10 9	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ireland:												
Ballina	113	16 6	113	16 6	—	—	—	—	—	—
Belfast	1,649	9 2	71	2 7	1,720	11 9	402	9 0	13	3 9	415	12 9
Coleraine	116	17 7	9	18 8	126	16 3	68	5 3	4	19 4	73	4 7
Drogheda	459	14 0	4	4 0	463	18 0	459	14 0	4	4 0	463	18 0
Dublin	3,214	15 2	259	17 11	3,474	13 1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dundalk	248	5 7	8	3 10	256	9 5	79	3 5	9	17 4	89	0 9
Galway	68	16 3	68	16 3	66	3 9	66	3 9
Londonderry	924	9 0	95	14 6	1,020	3 6	464	14 4	45	8 9	510	1 4
Sligo	248	17 6	7	5 3	256	2 9	198	10 5	3	18 0	202	8 5
Tralee	81	8 3	10	10 0	91	18 3	38	8 3	38	8 3
Waterford	2,226	15 9	166	1 1	2,392	16 10	873	10 8	54	15 7	928	6 5
Westport	91	10 10½	2	16 3	94	7 1½	91	10 10½	2	16 3	94	7 1½

SHIPPING.

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No XXXIV.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) in the Months ended 31st October, 30th November, and 31st December, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
Countries.	October.	November.	December.	Countries.	October.	November.	December.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	507,955	475,509	444,984	United Kingdom and its Dependencies . . .	544,922	434,254	408,778
Russia . . .	3,320	6,646	1,750	Russia . . .	4,531	2,939	1,972
Sweden . . .	11,066	11,113	7,820	Sweden . . .	12,941	12,384	18,022
Norway . . .	86,770	45,519	14,740	Norway . . .	31,769	32,748	17,454
Denmark . . .	22,964	14,816	22,170	Denmark . . .	28,328	22,996	21,985
Prussia . . .	49,188	25,967	16,940	Prussia . . .	44,896	36,810	21,595
Other German States . . .	33,799	23,938	28,224	Other German States . . .	50,251	41,458	27,038
Holland . . .	19,156	13,648	13,055	Holland . . .	24,416	22,826	14,213
Belgium . . .	5,059	3,614	5,155	Belgium . . .	9,455	7,347	5,029
France . . .	3,202	2,927	4,596	France . . .	33,744	20,108	18,264
Spain . . .	3,283	2,954	2,511	Spain . . .	5,065	4,619	5,482
Portugal . . .	1,555	1,475	2,154	Portugal . . .	1,994	2,424	2,986
Italian States . . .	1,911	2,524	2,206	Italian States . . .	6,452	5,402	6,854
Other European States . . .	296	...	495	Other European States . . .	1,062	270	797
United States of America . . .	110,195	124,361	116,114	United States of America . . .	127,859	103,526	100,294
Other States in America, Africa or Asia	694	373	Other States in America, Africa or Asia . . .	1,243	—	—
Total—Tons . . .	859,719	755,705	683,287	Total—Tons . . .	928,928	750,111	660,758
Vessels . . .	3,376	2,596	2,457	Vessels . . .	3,900	2,328	2,488

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards, with Cargoes (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various Countries, during the Months ended 31st October, 30th November, and 31st December, 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.

Countries.	October.	November.	December.	Countries.	October.	November.	December.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British Possessions, in North America . . .	157,666	160,821	116,758	Brought forward . . .	681,632	572,364	485,521
East Indies . . .	44,690	42,416	54,218	Italian States . . .	8,285	13,122	11,555
Australia . . .	5,058	12,382	3,599	Turkish Dominions . . .	13,408	12,435	5,737
All other Parts . . .	25,462	27,490	26,211	Wallachia and Moldavia . . .	7,090	4,014	2,493
Russia . . .	135,731	91,150	61,683	Other European States . . .	2,980	4,339	2,766
Sweden . . .	44,771	40,385	16,628	Egypt . . .	7,524	14,752	13,074
Norway . . .	41,475	15,462	3,309	United States . . .	87,478	92,502	115,059
Denmark . . .	17,279	15,624	16,998	Mexico, Foreign West Indies, & Central America . . .	9,002	13,615	13,325
Prussia . . .	60,383	39,955	42,034	Brazil . . .	6,832	4,485	6,423
Other German States . . .	38,567	30,324	36,209	Other States in America, Africa and Asia . . .	35,488	24,077	27,334
Holland . . .	39,430	31,958	32,968	Total—Tons . . .	859,719	755,705	683,287
Belgium . . .	15,426	13,189	15,701	Vessels . . .	3,376	2,596	2,457
France . . .	37,157	34,010	37,751				
Spain . . .	12,664	10,508	9,921				
Portugal . . .	5,873	6,690	11,533				
Carried forward . . .	681,632	572,364	485,521				

Note.—"Transports" with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return.

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Countries.	October.	November.	December.	Countries.	October.	November.	December.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British Possessions in				Brought forward	646,119	498,877	416,260
North America	20,873	9,900	8,172	Italian States .	35,973	28,902	26,848
East Indies .	52,266	52,779	34,821	Turkish Dominions .	6,877	10,575	12,323
Australia .	46,937	43,086	39,634	Wallachia and			
All other Parts	52,012	52,796	47,491	Moldavia .	509	1,040	466
Russia . . .	27,372	6,065	2,715	Other European			
Sweden . . .	13,673	10,440	5,345	States . . .	2,193	1,897	5,176
Norway . . .	16,486	16,670	7,048	Egypt . . .	19,117	9,218	5,080
Denmark . . .	46,817	31,976	20,913	United States .	146,485	130,837	126,187
Prussia . . .	48,711	26,307	8,699	Mexico, Foreign			
Other German				West Indies, &			
States . . .	78,983	54,167	34,920	Central America	20,799	23,465	24,520
Holland . . .	58,113	39,284	22,526	Brazil . . .	20,767	12,967	15,146
Belgium . . .	19,937	18,809	23,463	Other States in			
France . . .	110,762	90,867	105,561	America, Africa			
Spain . . .	38,755	30,977	38,859	and Asia . . .	31,089	32,333	28,752
Portugal . . .	13,422	14,754	16,093				
Carried forward	646,119	498,877	416,260	Total—Tons	928,928	750,111	660,758
				Vessels	3,900	2,828	2,488

Note.—“Transports” with Government stores, &c., are not included in this return.

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing British and Foreign (employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, and otherwise), Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards with Cargoes at Ports in the United Kingdom, during the Months ended 31st October, 30th November, and 31st December 1856.

ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
Vessels.	October.	November.	December.	Vessels.	October.	November.	December.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland:				Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland:			
British . . .	207,250	206,210	181,285	British . . .	253,797	245,507	224,924
Foreign . . .	2,690	637	599	Foreign . . .	104	—	—
Other Coasting Vessels:				Other Coasting Vessels:			
British . . .	947,439	851,959	875,795	British . . .	981,703	859,609	886,109
Foreign . . .	4,800	4,354	3,532	Foreign . . .	2,836	737	1,596
Total { British	1,154,689	1,058,169	1,057,080	Total { British	1,235,500	1,105,116	1,111,033
Foreign	7,490	4,991	4,131	Foreign	2,940	737	1,596
Total—Tons	1,162,179	1,063,160	1,061,211	Total—Tons	1,238,440	1,105,853	1,112,629
Vessels	11,612	10,050	10,470	Vessels	13,203	11,448	10,964

No. XXXVII.—CUSTOMS DUTIES (CANADA AND THE WEST INDIES).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 20th May, 1856, for Copies of Extracts of any Correspondence which has taken place between the Colonial-office and the Governors of our North American and West Indian Colonies, on the subject of a proposal for the mutual Abolition of Customs Duties, upon the Productions of Canada and the West Indies. (Sir Stafford Northcote.) (431.)

On the 26th May, 1856, the Legislative Assembly of Canada appointed a Committee to inquire into the commercial intercourse between Canada and Great Britain, the West India possessions, the United States and other foreign countries. The report of that Committee was ordered to be printed, but owing to the prorogation it was not discussed by the Legislature. The following is an abstract of the Committee's "Report on Trade and Commerce."

The Committee addressed a circular letter to the secretaries of the different Governments of the colonial possessions of Great Britain in America, to ascertain whether in their judgment the adoption of a free commercial intercourse, similar to that which exists between the different states of the American Union, would promote the prosperity of the colonies, and induce a direct trade by the St. Lawrence. Circulars were also addressed to the different boards of trade, as well as to the prominent individuals in Canada, for the purpose of ascertaining, first, whether foreign articles were furnished to the consumers in the United States at less price than in Canada; and, secondly, whether the encouragement of manufactures would promote the general interest, and if so what legislative action would, in their judgment, best attain that object. After examining the answers, statements, and official returns, the Committee proceeded to consider the different subjects as follows:—

I. *The intercourse between Canada and Great Britain.*—Under the Canadian tariff of 2½ per cent. and discriminating duties, this trade increased in a ratio of three to one over that with the United States. Since the change in the colonial commercial policy of the Imperial Government it has decreased in the same proportion as compared with that of the United States. However, it continued to increase in imports from 1,669,003*l.*, in 1849, to 5,740,832*l.* in 1854; and in exports from 1,348,424*l.*, in 1849, to 2,719,179*l.* in 1854, although almost wholly confined to timber. Of the total exports of 2,246,164*l.*, in 1853, only 524,047*l.* were the product of the mine, the sea, and of agriculture.

The causes of this comparative diminution are various. First, the natural advantages of the St. Lawrence route to the ocean are not yet well known. A vessel carrying flour or other produce may, at this moment, descend from the head of Lake Superior, or of Michigan, to the port of Quebec, with a larger cargo, in less time, and at less cost, than she can to any other Atlantic port, the price from Chicago, or from any intermediate port on Lake Michigan or Erie, being nearly one-half less than to the port

of New York. But the difference in the price of ocean freights from those two ports respectively to Liverpool is sufficient not only to counterbalance the advantage in favour of Quebec of the cheap transport from the interior, but to give to New York a decided superiority as a port of export on the whole voyage from the West to England, and thus the entire foreign trade of the Lakes, which nature has designed should seek Quebec as a port of ocean shipment, has been diverted into the hands of its rival. One of the principal causes of this superiority is apparent. The bounties given by the Governments of Great Britain and of the United States to the splendid ocean steamers between New York and Liverpool have compelled the regular lines of packet ships, which formerly engrossed the business now done by those vessels, and which did it without subsidy from Government, to seek for other employment. Thus a marine, on which many millions of capital had been expended, was suddenly transferred to the emigrant and ordinary trade between those ports, and by their competition reduced the outward freights to ballast prices.

The means suggested for the improvement of the trade are:—1st. The opening of the navigation throughout to the ocean for steamers of the largest class, and reducing the interior freight to minimum prices; 2nd. The discontinuance of the public bounty between Liverpool and New York, or an aid to the same extent between Quebec and Liverpool, so as to reduce the ocean freight in the same proportion.

II. *The commercial intercourse between Canada and the other British North American Colonies.*—The value of the trade with these possessions amounted, in 1851, to 373,007*l.*; in 1854, 554,001*l.*, of which 149,082*l.* were imports, and the duties thereon 26,691*l.* Sugar and molasses alone yielded 24,072*l.*, while all other articles paid only 2,619*l.*

The population of these colonies in 1851, including Canada, numbered 2,297,219; the revenue from customs amounted to 976,938*l.*, being an average per head for Canada of 8*s.* 2½*d.*; New Brunswick, 10*s.* 11½*d.*; Nova Scotia, 6*s.* 7½*d.*; Prince Edward's Island, 5*s.* 8½*d.*; and Newfoundland, 14*s.* 7½*d.* The public debt of the United Colonies amounts to 4,691,509*l.* 1*s.* 8½*d.*

A free commercial intercourse between Canada and the neighbouring provinces of North America is recommended on the ground that the favourable position which the northern provinces occupy between the Mediterranean, the West Indies, and the Western states, would enable the agricultural productions of the West to be exchanged in Canadian ports for the productions of the East, in addition to their lumber and fish, furnishing return cargoes, and opening a direct and apparently profitable trade. Their shipping interest would possess the advantage of employment in the inland navigation during summer, and on the ocean during the winter.

III. *Commercial intercourse between Canada and the British West India Islands.*—In 1854 the value of West India productions imported amounted to 333,970*l.*, of which only 621*l.* came direct from the British possessions,

54,481*l*. from foreign islands, and 59,607*l*. through Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward's Island: in all, *viâ* the St. Lawrence, 114,709*l*., leaving 219,261*l*. to reach Canada through the United States. It will thus be seen that the direct trade between Canada and the British West Indies, by the way of the St. Lawrence, which a few years ago was in a flourishing condition, has almost disappeared.

IV. *Commercial intercourse between Canada and the United States.*—In 1846 the Imperial Government changed her colonial commercial policy, and the markets of Great Britain were thrown open to the products of the United States without stipulating that they should receive the products of the British provinces on the same terms. This change established two prices for agricultural productions on the frontier; the grower in Canada, according to the course of trade, receiving 20 per cent., or the amount of the duty, less than the grower in the United States. Notwithstanding this difference in the value of the natural productions of the two countries (which are now admitted free, under the reciprocal Acts of 1854), imports into the United States from Canada, and *vice versa*, increased considerably.

The value of imports into Canada from beyond sea through the United States was 2,010,825*l*.; of manufactures of the United States, 2,835,525*l*.; total, 4,846,350*l*.; and the exports to the United States amounted to 2,604,320*l*., or a grand total of 7,450,670*l*.; while the imports into the United States through Canada from sea amounted only to 261,991*l*.

The imports of the United States, in 1854, were 304,565,381 dols.; exports of foreign and domestic goods, 278,241,064 dols.; leaving an excess of imports over exports of 26,324,317 dols. This excess is fully covered by the precious metals brought by immigrants, by profit on exports, and by ships engaged in the foreign trade. The total value of foreign merchandise imported into the United States was 304,561,381 dols.; duties thereon, 58,072,390 dols.; being an average consumption, for a population of 25,000,000, of about 12 dols.; and average duty 2 dols. 25 c. per head. The imports into Canada of corresponding articles amounted to 40,529,324 dols., and the duties to 4,900,192 dols.; being, for a population of 2,000,000, 20 dols. for the former, and 2 dols. 50 c. for the latter, per head. From which it appears that the inhabitants of Canada individually consume double the amount of foreign imports, and pay higher duties, than the inhabitants of the United States.

V. *Commercial intercourse between Canada and other Foreign Countries direct.*—The trade of Canada from the sea-coast of Labrador to the head of Lake Superior is naturally directed to Great Britain or to the United States, where, under their drawback systems, the productions of the world centre, and are furnished at the lowest prices. At no distant day, the competition for the foreign trade of the Western States will be between the direct route of the St. Lawrence and that by the Atlantic ports of the United States, the latter being subject to a transhipment at Buffalo and other lake or

river ports. In 1853, the value of this trade into Canadian sea-ports amounted, in imports, to 268,507*l.*; exports, 52,448*l.*; in all, 320,995*l.*

GENERAL REMARKS.—The object of this investigation is to point out the position of the inhabitants of Canada, as compared with that of the people of the adjoining States, with the view of placing them on a footing not less favourable.

By the reciprocity Acts of 1854, this has been accomplished, so far as the grower is concerned, but not so as regards the consumer. In Canada, for instance, tea, coffee, and other articles in general use, are subjected to duty, while in the United States they are admitted free. In Canada, such manufactured articles as should be produced by the industry of our own people are chargeable with a duty of 12½ per cent.; in the United States, from 20 to 100 per cent.; confining the comparison to the staple manufactures of cotton, woollens, and iron. In 1853, the importation of these articles into the United States amounted to 80,457,259 dols., averaging 3 dols. 20c. for each inhabitant; while the like manufactures imported into Canada amounted to 7,885,076 dols., averaging for each inhabitant 3 dols. 50c. per head. The amount of those imports was in the following proportions from different countries; viz., Great Britain, 5,819,892 dols.; United States 2,030,804 dols.; all other parts of the world, 33,868 dols. This result proves that the United States furnishes us with from one-third to one-fourth of those articles cheaper than we can procure them elsewhere.

Manufactures.—The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on 1st June 1850, amounted in round numbers to 500,000,000 dols.; the value of raw material manufactured was 550,000,000 dols., the amount paid for labour, 240,000,000 dols.; the value of the manufactured articles, 1,020,300,000 dols.; the number of persons employed was 1,050,000. The amount of home-manufactured articles exported by them in 1854 was 64,242,073 dols., of which 38,062,570 dols. was gold and silver coin.

The capital invested in manufactures in Canada, or the value of the articles manufactured, cannot be given, as the census returns merely give the number of saw-mills, and manufactures from wood, flouring-mills, grain, and various descriptions of machinery incident to all new countries; but give no information as to the value of the material. The exports of manufactured articles amount to 140,424 dols., of which 107,832 dols. are to the United States, consisting of iron, woollens, wood, straw-hats, rags, ground plaster, and a few other articles; showing that under our present policy capital has not been invested in the manufacture of cotton, wool, or iron, to any extent.

The principal cause of the excess of foreign importations into Canada, in proportion to its population over those of a similar kind into the United States, arises from the fact that such articles are not produced here to any extent, while in the United States they are manufactured in such quantity

as to meet a certain proportion of the demand for them; and yet, if there is a country in the world where such manufactures could be expected to flourish, it is Canada. Water-power is distributed over the province in profusion, and the supply unlimited. The climate, owing to the long winters in Lower Canada, during which the population are unemployed, ensures a supply of labour at low prices; and the exports of straw hats and bonnets is an evidence at least of the desire for employment amongst its inhabitants, which might be turned to more profitable account.

Revenue.—The operation of our present drawback or bonding system is not generally understood.

In Great Britain and the United States, where large amounts are warehoused and again re-exported to foreign countries, this system confers great advantages on the shipping interest, and on every branch of commerce.

In the United States, the imports from Great Britain and her possessions alone amounted to 163,018,095 dols., of which 15,744,891 dols. was re-exported.

But the warehousing system is only required where re-exportation is meant to take place, and is not adapted for a purely internal trade; and the old system of extending a credit to the importer, on his giving bond for the payment of the duty, is a much more economical one for the public, and better adapted to the trade of this province.

There are only 17 principal ports on the frontiers in the United States bordering on Canada, and during a period of 24 years (since 1830), an increase of only one has been made. Whereas there are 74 ports on the frontier in Canada, bordering on the United States, including 30 additional ports created since the year 1841, or during the period of 13 years.

In the United States the expenses of collection increased from 84,241 dols. in 1830 to 137,189 dols. in 1848, exceeding the whole amount received by about 400,000 dols. During this period of 19 years the revenues increased from 63,204 dols. to 1,052,368 dols. In Canada the expense of collection increased from 45,584 dols. in 1841 to 239,016 dols. in 1854; and the estimates for the present year have reached 280,000 dols., while the revenue has increased from 903,336 dols. to 4,900,768 dols.

From the above statements the Committee submitted for the consideration of the Legislature:—

1st. The removal of all duties on the productions of the British possessions in America, imported by the St. Lawrence, on precisely the same principle as between the different States of the Union.

2nd. That the principle of reciprocity with the United States be extended to the productions of manufacture, to the registration of Canadian and United States built vessels, and to the shipping and coasting trade, in the same manner as to the productions of agriculture.

3rd. That an address be presented to her Majesty, praying that the

bounty on steamers between Liverpool and Boston may not be renewed after the expiration of existing contracts, or that an equivalent bounty be given to the St. Lawrence for six months of the year.

4th. The removal of all duties on cheap, heavy, and bulky articles by the St. Lawrence.

5th. The deepening of the channel between Lakes St. Francis and St. Louis, immediately, and the extension of liberal aid towards the building of tidal docks at Quebec.

6th. The construction of the St. Lawrence and Champlain Canal, with locks of the same dimensions as Sault St. Marie, as soon as possible.

7th. The extension of a credit to the importer, so as to admit of a reduction in the number of inland ports of entry, and in consequent expense to the public.

The report is signed by the Hon. William Hamilton Merritt, Chairman. The report contained also several tabular statements showing the population, income, expenditure, and debt of the Provinces of British North America, and of imports, exports, &c., of Canada, the United States, &c.

On the 12th July, 1855, Lord John Russell issued a circular despatch to the governors of her Majesty's colonies. In this circular he called attention to a circular despatch addressed on the 24th May, 1843, to the governors of the colonies by Lord Stanley, then Colonial Minister, where he showed the difficulties which the various local legislatures of the colonies would have in legislating for the imposition of discriminating duties on goods imported into the colonies; and the objection of her Majesty's Government to the assumption by the local legislatures of such an office. Lord John Russell pointed out the impolicy of, and the evil attendant on, the imposition of such differential duties, and instructed the governors of the colonies to withhold their assent to bills passed by the legislatures for such an object.

On the 11th August, 1855, Sir W. Molesworth issued a circular despatch to the governors of the West Indian colonies, with regard to the proposal made for the mutual abolition of custom duties upon the productions of Canada and the West Indian colonies. Referring to an enclosed letter from the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, Sir W. Molesworth said that her Majesty's Government would regard the proposed arrangement as very objectionable, on the grounds, first, that it would separate commercially, so far as such an arrangement is concerned, the colonies who entered into it from the rest of the empire; secondly, that it would be injurious not only to the interests of consumers in the colonies who were a party to the arrangement, but to the interests of producers in every other part of the empire; and, thirdly, that it would be inconsistent with the imperial policy of free trade.

Sir W. Colebrooke, Governor of the Windward Islands, Barbadoes, on the 3rd May, 1855, sent a despatch to Lord John Russell, enclosing

copy of resolutions passed by the Assembly in consequence of a communication from Canada on free commercial intercourse. The Assembly resolved as follows:—

1. Resolved, that this House pledges itself to pass an Act for admitting articles being the native productions of Canada into this island free of duty, so soon as information shall have duly reached this House that a similar Act has been passed by the Legislature of Canada, for admitting into that country, duty free, articles being the native productions of this island.

2. Resolved, that it be made a special provision of such Acts respectively that the free commercial intercourse thus entered upon between the two countries may be terminated at any time, by either country, on giving one whole year's notice of such intended termination to the other country, through their respective executives, moved thereunto by a resolution of the legislature of the country giving such notice.

On the 26th July and 7th August, 1855, Sir W. Colebrooke sent despatches to Lord John Russell, advocating the views which have led to the adoption of the proposal in question; and on the 13th August, he recommended the negotiation of a treaty on behalf of the West India colonies, similar to that concluded between the British Government and the United States of America on the 5th June, 1854, for the admission of Newfoundland to its privileges in common with the British provinces of North America. Sir W. Colebrooke, in subsequent despatches of the 11th and 24th September, made further observations in support of his recommendation that the West Indies should be allowed to enter into arrangement with Canada for the free interchange of their produce. He referred to the situation of the sugar planter, and enclosed an account showing that on 2 hogsheads of 28 cwt. of sugar, sold at prices above the average rate of 35s., after deducting the duty of 15s., and the commercial charges of 6s. per cwt., there remains a balance of 16s. per cwt. from which to redeem the planter's expenses, varying from 14s. to 16s. per cwt., without including interest on the advances or rent of the land. The cost of producing 100 hogsheads of sugar is 973*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; and of 1 hogshead of sugar, 9*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.*; and 1 cwt., 14*s.*; while the cost of producing Muscovado sugar in Barbadoes has been reduced on some well-managed estates to 12*s.* per cwt., the cost of its production in Cuba was 8*s.* per cwt., affording a premium to the Cuban planter which must tend to give encouragement to the slave trade.

On the 31st December, 1855, Sir W. M. G. Colebrooke transmitted to the Right Hon. H. Labouchere, M.P., copy of a despatch from the Lieutenant-Governor of St. Vincent, enclosing an address from the Legislative Council. In this Address the Board of Council expressed their sincere regret that the recently adopted policy of England sacrifices colonial interests to domestic necessities, free trade to the colony, without a power to modify its application, and to protect internal interests from the exhausting influence of powerful antagonists in the foreign slave-holding colonies, and

must be in its ultimate effects ruinous; and the prostrate condition in which the colony now is can unhappily be traced to that cause alone.

Governor Hincks, of the Windward Islands, in a despatch dated Barbadoes, 7th May, 1856, to the Right Hon. H. Labouchere, M.P., remarked that the proposition regarding Canada and the West Indies was, that each country should admit the principal staples of the other, and not produced by itself, free of duty, while the same articles, when imported from other countries, were to remain subject to heavy imposts, and that the practical effect of such a measure would be the introduction of a protective system, the result of which would be disappointment and loss to all parties concerned. He thought such a proposition differed materially from the treaty between the United States and British America, which is essentially one of free trade. On the 28th August, 1855, Sir W. Molesworth sent a despatch to Sir W. M. G. Colebrooke, replying to his observations in favour of the proposed custom arrangement. In answer to Governor Hincks, Mr. Labouchere transmitted to him a copy of a note by the Board of Trade, dated 25th January, 1856. In this communication the Board of Trade refers to the increase of quantity of unrefined sugar imported from the Spanish colonies from 596,380 cwt. in 1846, to 1,977,370 cwt. in 1854, an increase of more than 200 per cent., and constituting nearly 18 per cent. of the total amount consumed in the United Kingdom, and representing a gross revenue of 993,061*l.*; whilst during the same period the average price of brown Muscovado sugar has fallen from 34*s.* 5*d.* to 22*s.* 8*d.* in 1854, and to 26*s.* in 1855, thus showing that any attempt to prohibit the importation of sugar from the Spanish colonies would be attended by the most injurious consequences both to the consumer and to the revenue of the United Kingdom; without any countervailing advantage to any other British interests. The table enclosed shows that the quantity of raw sugar imported from 1842 to 1854 increased in the following proportion:—British West Indies, 934,357 cwt.; Mauritius, 972,858 cwt.; Spanish colonies, 1,380,990 cwt.; foreign countries, not being Spanish colonies, 631,680 cwt. Of East Indian sugar, there were imported 689,332 cwt. in 1842, and 1,225,378 cwt. in 1853, but 784,966 cwt. in 1852.

No. XXXVIII.—COURTS OF CIRCUIT, MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 19th Feb., 1857, for A Return of the Amount of Property which formed the subject of the Trials held before the Courts of Circuit of the Madras Presidency, with the number of Suitors in the respective years 1803, 1833, and before the Sessional Judges in 1853. (65. L.)

IN 1833 the number of plaintiffs was 73,680; of defendants, 87,406; and the amount, 52,64,399 rupees. In 1853 the number of plaintiffs, 116,542; of defendants, 177,951; amount, 92,64,471 rupees. No account for 1803, as the Courts were not in operation.

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No. XXXIX.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS (AUSTRALIA, &c.)

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 6th March, 1856, for Accounts of the Quantities of the principal Articles imported into and exported from the United Kingdom, the British Settlements in Australia, the United States in America, the Canadian Possessions, the British West Indies and Brazil, &c. (Mr. Archibald Hastie.) (351.)

THE principal articles imported from the British settlements in Australia, 1850-1852, were, copper ore, 1850, 9,235 tons; 1852, 9,983 tons; 1855, 3,565 tons. Hides not tanned, 1850, 26,047 cwts.; 1855, 43,650 cwts.; Hides tanned, 1850, 847,591 lbs.; 1855, 491,069 lbs. Tallow, 1850, 173,744 cwts., and 1855, 52,481 cwts. Wool, 1850, 39,018,221 lbs.; 1851, 41,810,117 lbs.; 1852, 43,197,301 lbs.; 1853, 47,075,963 lbs.; 1854, 47,489,650 lbs., and 1855, 49,142,306 lbs. The principal articles of exports were, apparels, haberdashery, 1855, 502,783*l*.; 1853, 3,633,908*l*.; 1854, 2,410,664*l*.; and 1855, 877,209*l*. Cotton manufacture, 1850, 363,363*l*.; 1853, 1,032,303*l*.; and 1855, 300,296*l*. Iron, 1850, 144,085*l*.; 1853, 704,202*l*.; 1855, 499,469*l*. Leather, 1850, 91,094*l*.; 1853, 1,047,075*l*.; 1855, 525,940*l*. Woollen and woollen yarn, 1850, 277,460*l*.; 1853, 1,355,755*l*.; 1855, 273,651*l*.; besides stationery, machinery, soap, &c. The total value of exports was, 1850, 2,602,254*l*.; 1853, 14,513,700*l*.; 1855, 6,278,966*l*. There were, moreover, exported to Australia of foreign and colonial produce, coffee, in 1850, 91,162 lbs.; 1853, 536,688 lbs.; 1855, 67,475 lbs.; tea, 1850, 32,581 lbs.; 1853, 129,588 lbs.; 1855, 95,648 lbs. Tobacco, 1850, 738,822 lbs.; 1853, 1,493,939 lbs.; 1855, 1,585,208 lbs. Wine, 1850, 255,047 gallons; 1853, 1,335,059 gallons; 1855, 544,000 gallons, besides spirits, rum, brandy, Geneva, &c.

The principal imports from the United States were, cotton, 1850, 4,403,153 cwts.; 1851, 5,327,134 cwts.; 1852, 6,835,987 cwts.; 1853, 5,879,034 cwts.; 1854, 6,447,780 cwts.; 1855, 6,085,977 cwts. Grains, 1850, 638,854 qrs.; 1853, 947,006 qrs.; 1854, 1,379,207 qrs.; 1855, 921,550 qrs. Wheatmeal and flour, 1850, 1,527,158 cwts.; 1853, 3,043,107 cwts., and 1855, 684,126 cwts. Tobacco, 1850, 31,360,186 lbs.; 1853, 37,878,465 lbs.; 1855, 28,553,154 lbs. Beef, salted, 1850, 112,178 cwts.; 1853, 155,169 cwts.; 1855, 192,324 cwts. The principal articles of exports consisted in cotton, linen, and woollen manufactures, iron, apparel, &c., the total value being, 1850, 14,891,961*l*.; 1853, 23,658,427*l*.; and 1855, 17,318,086*l*. The foreign and colonial articles exported consisted of spirits, wool, silk, wine, &c.

The principal imports from British North America were, wheatmeal and flour, 1850, 250,673 cwts.; 1851, 378,166 cwts.; 1855, 10,928 cwts. Wood, sugar, fish, train oil, &c. The exports to British North America were, 1850, 3,235,051*l*.; 1853, 4,898,544*l*.; 1855, 2,885,331*l*.

The principal imports from the British West Indies were, coffee, 1850, 4,343,722 lbs.; 1853, 3,307,400 lbs.; 1855, 3,083,818 lbs.

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Cocoa, 1850, 1,987,760 lbs.; 1853, 4,993,250 lbs.; 1855, 4,794,464 lbs. Spirits, rum, 1850, 3,579,176 galls.; 1853, 3,707,648 galls.; 1855, 7,160,104 gallons. Sugar, unrefined, 1850, 2,589,358 cwts.; 1852, 3,407,953 cwts.; 1855, 2,915,368 cwts. The aggregate value of exports to the British West Indies was, 1850, 2,213,581*l*.; 1854, 2,008,380*l*.; 1855, 1,979,956*l*.

The principal imports from Brazil were, cocoa, 1850, 1,204,572 lbs.; 1852, 2,244,713 lbs.; 1855, 656,273 lbs. Coffee, 1850, 1,782,825 lbs.; 1851, 7,888,638 lbs.; 1852, 3,053,202 lbs.; 1853, 5,923,879 lbs.; 1854, 10,426,000 lbs.; 1855, 12,543,243 lbs. Cotton, raw, 1850, 270,536 cwts.; 1852, 236,662 cwts.; 1855, 219,446 cwts. The exports, to Brazil principally, of cotton manufactures, amounted in 1850, to 2,544,837*l*.; 1853, 3,186,407*l*.; 1855, 3,312,728*l*.

NO. XL.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS (BRITISH COLONIES).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 30th May, 1856, for

Return of the Duties payable under Colonial Enactments on Goods imported into and exported from the British Colonies. (Mr. John Ball.) (285.)

PART I.—NORTH AMERICA.

THE following are the rates of duties on the principal articles.

1. CANADA.—Import duty: raw sugar, 6*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; refined, 12*s.*; and white and brown clayed, 8*s.* 6*d.*; tea, 2*d.* per lb.; wine in bottles, 7*s.* 6*d.* per dozen quarts; tobacco, 2*d.* per lb. All goods, merchandise, &c., not otherwise charged with duty, 12*l.* 10*s.* for every 100*l.* value. These duties are in Canadian currency. Animals of all kinds, grains, pig iron, rags, Russian hemp yarn, locomotives, passengers' baggage, &c., and musical instruments, duty free. A number of articles, such as grain, provisions, coal, &c., are admitted to importation duty free under the reciprocating treaty with the United States. Bar and rod iron, sheet iron of certain sizes, ships' sails, machinery, &c., pay a duty of 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*.

2. NOVA SCOTIA.—Import duty: coffee, 2*d.* per lb.; sugar refined, 14*s.* per cwt.; brown or muscovado, not refined, 7*s.* per cwt.; tea, 2*d.* per lb.; wine, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* per gallon; leather, &c., 10 per cent. *ad valorem*; copper, cables, anchors, &c., 2½ per cent.; iron in bars or bolts, tar, zinc, &c., 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*. Corn, copper ore, iron ores, iron rails, salt, tobacco, &c., are exempted from duty. Articles being the growth, production, or manufacture of Canada, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, or Newfoundland, may be imported from the respective colonies free of duty, upon due proof of origin and character. Goods of the growth and production of the United States are also admitted duty free under the reciprocity treaty.

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3. NEW BRUNSWICK.—Import duty on sugar, brown or muscovado, 6s. per cwt.; refined in loaves, 1½d. per lb.; tea, 2d. per lb.; tobacco, 2d. per lb.; coffee, 1½d. per lb.; anchors, cotton, iron, sails, tin, slates, &c., 1 per cent.; furniture of all kinds, 15 per cent.

4. PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.—Import duty on brown sugar, 6s. per cwt.; refined, 2d. per lb.; tea, 3d. per lb.; coffee, 1½d. per lb.; wines, 5 per cent. *ad valorem*; tobacco, manufactured, 4d. per lb.; flour, wheaten, 5s. for every 196 lbs. Anchors, timber, salt, seeds, iron, &c., are free of duty.

5. NEWFOUNDLAND.—Import duty on cotton manufactures, 7½ per cent.; silk manufactures, 10 per cent.; tea, 4d. per lb.; sugar, loaf and refined, 12s., unrefined and bastard, 7s. 6d. per cwt.; coffee, 1d. per lb.; wine, in bottle, 5s.; leather manufactures, 10 per cent. There is a reciprocity treaty with the United States, and goods of the growth of British North America are admitted duty free. Export duties, *nil*.

PART II.—WEST INDIES AND THE MAURITIUS.

1. JAMAICA.—Import duty on wheat flour, 6s. per barrel; machinery, 4 per cent.; sugar, unrefined, 10s. per cwt., refined, 2d. per lb.; wheat, 6d. per bushel; oats, 3d. per bushel; spirits, brandy, 6s. per gallon; tea, 1s. per lb.; tobacco, manufactured, 3d. per lb.

2. BRITISH GUIANA.—Import duty on corn, 5 cents per bushel; corn, meal, and oatmeal, 25 per 100 lbs.; sugar, refined, 4 dols. per 112 lbs.; tea, 12 cents per lb.; wheat flour, 1 dol. per barrel of 196 lbs. There is an export duty of 50 cents upon every hogshead of sugar not exceeding 2,000 lbs. net; 30 cents upon every puncheon of rum; 10 cents upon every puncheon of molasses; 50 cents upon every tierce of coffee not exceeding 700 lbs.; 40 cents upon timber at the rate per 100 cubic feet, &c.

3. TRINIDAD.—Import duty on coffee, 5s. per 100 lbs.; corn, 2½d. the bushel; cotton linen wool manufactures, 5l. for every 100l. value; iron, copper, brass, tin, lead manufactures, 5 per cent.; silk manufactures, 10 per cent.; tea, 2d. per lb.; tobacco, unmanufactured, 4½d. per lb.; wine, in bottles, 6s. the dozen quarts. Tonnage duty, 1s. 9d. per ton upon every ship of 50 tons and upwards; 1s. 3d. on ships of 25 tons and under 50 tons; and 3d. on ships under 25 tons. There is an export duty on sugar of 3s. for every hogshead, 2s. for every tierce, 6d. for every barrel; on molasses, 1s. for every puncheon; rum, 2s. for every puncheon; cocoa, 6d. for every bag; and coffee, 6d. for every 100 lbs.

4. BARBADOES.—Import duty on raw sugar, 2s. per 100 lbs.; coffee, 2s. per 100 lbs.; tea, 2d. per lb.; tobacco, 12 per cent.; copper, 1s. per 100 lbs.; corn, 3d. per bushel.

5. GRENADA.—Import duties: coffee, 6s. per 100 lbs.; flour, wheaten, 4s. per barrel; meal and other flour, 2s. per barrel; sugar, refined, 12s. per 100 lbs.; muscovado, 8s. per 100 lbs.; tea, 4d. per lb.; wine, bottles, 20 per cent.

6. TOBAGO.—The duties on articles imported were, corn, 3*d.* per bushel; wheat flour, 3*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; sugar, slave produce, 3*d.* per lb.; sugar, not slave produce, 1*d.* per lb.; tea, 4*d.* per lb.; tobacco, unmanufactured, 2*d.* per lb.; wines, 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

7. ST. VINCENT.—The import duty on wheat flour, 4*s.* per barrel; sugar, unrefined, 5*s.* per cwt.; tea, 3*d.* per lb.; coffee, 2*s.* per cwt.; wine, 8 per cent.

8. ST. LUCIA.—The duties levied on articles imported were, on tea, 6*d.* per lb.; wine, 10 per cent.; flour, 3*s.* per bushel. The export duties: sugar, $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per 100 lbs.; molasses, 1*s.* per puncheon; rum, 2*s.* per puncheon; coffee, 1*s.* per 100 lbs.; cocoa, 6*d.* per 100 lbs.

9. ANTIGUA.—The import duties were, wheat flour, 5*s.* per barrel; peas, beans, barley, &c., 3*d.* per bushel; wine, 15 per cent.; sugar refined, 6*d.* per lb.; tea, 4*d.* per lb.

10. MONTSERRAT.—The import duties on wheat flour, 5*s.* per barrel; oats, 4*d.* per bushel; beans and peas, 1*s.* per bushel; sugar refined, 1*d.* per lb.; coffee, 10*s.* per 100 lbs.; wine, 15 per cent. The export duties were for every hogshead of sugar, 10*s.*; for every puncheon of rum, 4*s.*; for every puncheon of molasses, 2*s.*

11. ST. CHRISTOPHER.—The duties on imports were, on grain, peas, 1*s.* 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per bushel; oats, 3*d.* per bushel; rice, 1*s.* 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per 100 lbs.; sugar Muscovado, 5*s.* per 100 lbs.; wheat flour, 4*s.* 2*d.* per barrel; coffee and cocoa, 5*s.* per 100 lbs. The export duties were, sugar, 4*s.* 2*d.* per hogshead; rum, 2*s.* 1*d.* per puncheon; molasses, 1*s.* 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per puncheon; cotton, 1*s.* per 100 lbs.

12. NEVIS.—The duties on goods imported were, corn and grain, 3*d.* per bushel; peas and beans, 6*d.* per bushel; flour, 4*s.* per barrel; sugar refined, 5*s.* per cwt.; tea, 6*d.* per lb.; wine, 10 per cent.; on merchandise generally 4 per cent. *ad valorem*. Export duties: sugar, 8*s.* 8*d.* per hogshead; rum, 4*s.* per puncheon; molasses, 2*s.* 6*d.* per puncheon.

13. VIRGIN ISLANDS.—Export duties: on every 100 lbs. of cotton, 1*s.*; on every 100 lbs. sugar cane, 2*s.*; on every barrel of salt, 3*d.*; on every ox, bull, &c., 2*s.* No import duties.

14. DOMINICA.—Import duties: corn and grain, 5*d.* per bushel; sugar, muscovado, 3*s.* per cwt.; refined, 6*s.* per cwt.; tea, 6*d.* per lb.; wine, 20 per cent.; silk, 15 per cent.; glass, 15 per cent.; cocoa, 3*s.* per cwt.; pepper, 3*s.* per cwt.; rice, 2*s.* per cwt.; flour, wheat, 4*s.* 2*d.* per barrel of 196 lbs.; other meal, 2*s.* per barrel. Export duties: 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per 100 lbs. sugar; 1*s.* per 100 lbs. coffee; 6*d.* per 100 lbs. cocoa; 2*s.* 6*d.* per 100 gallons of molasses; 5*s.* per 100 gallons of rum.

15. BAHAMAS.—Import duties: coffee, 4*s.* per cwt.; corn meal, 1*s.* per barrel; wheat flour, 3*s.* per barrel; rye, 1*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; sugar unrefined, 5*s.* per cwt.; white clayed, 8*s.*; refined, 10*s.* per cwt.; tea, 9*d.* per lb. There is a tonnage duty on every ship arriving, except steam-vessels and vessels arriving in ballast.

16. TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.—Import duties: cocoa, 1*s.* per cwt.; coffee,

6*d.* per cwt.; corn, and other grain, 2*d.* per bushel; wheat, flour, 3*s.* 9*d.* per barrel; other than wheat, 1*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; sugar refined, 17*s.* per cwt., unrefined, 4*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.; clayed, 7*s.* per cwt.; tea, green, 7*d.* per lb.; black, 3*d.* per lb.; export salt, $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.* per lb.

17. HONDURAS.—On all goods, wares, and merchandise imported, 1*l.* per cent. *ad valorem*. Sugar and coffee, 8*s.* per 100 lbs.; tea, 1*s.* per lb.; cocoa, 4*s.* per 100 lbs.

18. MAURITIUS.—Import duty: tea, 1*d.* per lb.; sugar and coffee, 4*s.* per cwt. Manufactures, 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. Export duties: sugar the produce of Mauritius, 3*d.* per 100 lbs. net French weight.

PART III.—MEDITERRANEAN POSSESSIONS, AND UNITED STATES OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

1. MALTA.—Import duties: grain, wheat, 10*s.* per salm; Indian corn, 6*s.* per salm; barley, 4*s.* per salm.

2. IONIAN ISLANDS.—Import duties: coffee, 4*s.* 9*d.* on British and privileged flags, and 5*s.* 4*d.* per 100 lbs. on other flags; cotton wool, 5*s.* 4*d.* and 6*s.* per cwt. Flour, wheaten, 1*s.* and 1*s.* 2*d.* per 100 lbs.; finest quality, 1*s.* 6*d.* and 1*s.* 8*d.*; Indian corn, 6*d.* and 7*d.* per 100 lbs.; grain of all descriptions except wheat, 3*d.* per bushel. Iron, bar, 1*s.* 7*d.* and 1*s.* 9*d.*; hoop, 2*s.* 2*d.* and 2*s.* 5*d.*; sheet, 2*s.* 9*d.* and 3*s.* 1*d.* per 100 lbs.; oil, linseed, 4*s.* and 4*s.* 6*d.* per 100 lbs.; sugar, loaf, 6*s.* 11*d.* and 7*s.* 9*d.*, crushed, 4*s.* 11*d.* and 5*s.* 6*d.*, soft fine, 3*s.* 8*d.* and 4*s.* 2*d.*, muscovadoes, 2*s.* 6*d.* and 2*s.* 10*d.* per 100 lbs.; tea, 4*d.* and 5*d.* per lb.; wheat, 5*d.* per bushel. There is an export duty of 18 per cent. *ad valorem* on oil and currants; 6 per cent. *ad valorem* on Valonia; 8 per cent. on soap.

PART IV.—AFRICAN COLONIES.

1. SIERRA LEONE.—Import duties: flour, wheat, per barrel, 5*s.*; other than wheat, 2*s.* per barrel; iron, bars and hoops, 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; sugar, muscovado, 6*d.* per cwt., crushed, 8*s.* 3*d.* per cwt., refined, 10*s.* per cwt.; tea, 3*d.* per lb.

2. GAMBIA.—Import duties: upon all goods, wares, and merchandise, 4 per cent. *ad valorem*, with extra duties on spirits, tobacco, &c.

3. GOLD GAMBIA.—Import duties: one-half per cent. on all imported articles.

4. CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.—Import duties: coffee, 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; flour, wheaten, 3*s.* per barrel; pepper, 10*s.* per cwt.; tea, 6*d.* per lb.; sugar molasses, 2*s.* per cwt.; unrefined, 3*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; refined, 5*s.* per cwt.; wine, 2*s.* 6*d.* per gallon.

5. NATAL.—Import duties: coffee, of British possessions, 5*s.* per cwt.; foreign, 10*s.* per cwt.; flour, wheaten, not of British manufacture, 3*l.* per barrel of 196 lbs.; tea, 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.* per lb.; pepper, 4*s.* per cwt.; rice, 1*s.* 6*d.* per

cwt. Goods, wares, or mechanism of the United Kingdom or British possessions, 5*l*. per 100*l*.; of foreign countries, 12 per cent.

6. ST. HELENA.—Import duties: spirits, 10*s*. per gallon; wine, 1*s*. 9*d*. per gallon; beer in bottles, 6*d*. per dozen quart bottles.

PART V.—AUSTRALIAN COLONIES AND NEW ZEALAND.

1.—NEW SOUTH WALES.—Import duties: coffee and chicory, 2*d*. per lb.; tea, 3*d*. per lb.; sugar refined, 6*s*. 8*d*. per cwt.; unrefined, 5*s*. per cwt.; wine, 10*s*. per gallon; brandy and gin, 10*s*. per gallon.

2. VICTORIA.—Import duties: tea, 6*d*. per lb.; spirits, 10*s*. per gallon; coffee and chicory, 18*s*. 8*d*. per cwt.; sugar raw and refined, 6*s*. per cwt.; all other goods, wares, and merchandise free. Export duties: gold, per oz., 2*s*. 6*d*.

3. TASMANIA.—Import duties: tea, 3*d*. per lb.; raw sugar or molasses, 3*s*. per cwt.; refined sugar, 6*s*. per cwt.; coffee, 1½*d*. per lb.; rum and other spirits, 9*s*. per gallon.

4. WESTERN AUSTRALIA.—Import duties: coffee, 4*s*. per cwt.; sugar refined, 3*s*. per cwt.; moist and molasses, 2*s*. per cwt.; tea, 2*d*. per lb.; wine, bottled, 2*s*. per gallon.

5. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.—Import duties: coffee, 6*s*. per cwt.; corn and grain, 6*d*. per quart; flour and meal, 2*d*. per 100 lbs.; iron, bar and rod, 10*s*. per ton, sheet and hoop, 14*s*. per ton; pig, 2*s*. 6*d*. per ton; iron manufactures, 5 per cent. *ad valorem*; sugar refined, 4*s*. per cwt.; tea, 2*d*. per lb.; spirits, 9*s*. per gallon; wool manufactures, machinery, &c., 5 per cent. *ad valorem*; unenumerated raw and manufactured, 5 per cent.

6. NEW ZEALAND.—Import duties: coffee, 4*s*. 8*d*. per cwt.; corn, wheat, free; maize, 3*d*. per bushel; cotton manufactures, calicoes over 36 inches wide, 3*s*. 4*d*. per yard; 36 inches and under, ½*d*. per yard; cotton shawls and handkerchiefs, &c., 10*l*. per 100*l*.; muslin cambrics, &c., 10*l*. per 100*l*.; earthen wares, 10*l*. per 100*l*.; iron bar, 1*l*. per ton; chains, 2*l*. per ton; linen manufactures, 1*d*. and 2*d*. per yard; silk manufactures, silks and satins, 6*d*. per yard; not otherwise described, 10 per cent.; sugar, raw, 2*s*. 4*d*. per cwt.; refined, 4*s*. 8*d*. per cwt.; tea, 2*d*. per lb.; wool unmanufactured, free; woollen manufactures, cloth broad, 1*s*. 3*d*. per yard; kerseymere, 8*d*. per yard; flannel, 1*d*. per yard; stuff, woollen or worsted, 10*l*. per 100*l*.

PART VI.—EASTERN AND OTHER COLONIES.

1. CEYLON.—Import duties: flour, wheat, 2*s*. per cwt.; metals—iron, bar, 7*s*. per ton; hoop, 10*s*. per ton; pig, 5*s*.; rod, 8*s*.; sheet, 10*s*. per ton; sugar refined, 5*s*. per cwt.; unrefined, 2*s*. 6*d*.; tea, 6*d*. per lb.; goods and merchandise not enumerated, 5 per cent.

2. HONG KONG.—Free port, no duties levied on goods.

3. LABUAN.—No import duties.

4. FALKLAND ISLANDS.—No import duties.

5. HELIGOLAND.—No import or export duties.

No. XLL—INDIAN DEPARTMENT (CANADA).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 26th April, 1856, for Copies or Extracts of recent Correspondence respecting Alterations in the Organization of the Indian Department in Canada. (Visc. Goderich.) (247.)

THE Governor-General, the Earl of Elgin, transmitted to Sir George Grey, on the 18th December, 1854, a report from Mr. Oliphant, Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs, relative to the surrender of certain Indian lands on Lake Huron, with remarks on the prospects of the Indians in Canada. The expenditure of the department for Lower Canada for the year ending 30th March, 1854, was 1,267*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* sterling. The provincial parliament endows three schools at 50*l.* each, and makes them an annual grant of 1,000*l.* currency. 230,000 acres have been recently reserved to the Indians for cultivation or future surrender; besides which the St. Regis Indians own about 17,000 acres of land. The expenditure of the department on account of the Indian tribes of Upper Canada for the year ending 31st March, 1854, was 2,112*l.* 14*s.* Mr. Oliphant suggested some alterations in the administration of the department, especially relating to the mode of payment of annuities to the Indians in money instead of in goods; and also in granting them the same privilege of responsible ownership to land as they possess with regard to moveables. The tribes of Upper Canada receive annuities to the amount of 6,654*l.*, and interest 8,884*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.*, making a total income of 15,538*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* The sum expended by them for the support of missions, schools, salaries, &c., is 3,744*l.* 12*s.*, leaving a net annual income of 11,793*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.* To this must be added the sum which will accrue to the Saugean and Owen Sound Indians from the sale of the recently surrendered territory, estimated at 100,000*l.*, which will give an annual interest of 6,000*l.*, or altogether, 17,000*l.* income. Out of this income, Mr. Oliphant proposes that the tribes of Upper Canada should be called upon to defray, proportionably to their incomes, those expenses which are at present charged against the Imperial Government, and which are incidental to the support of the department that watches over their interests.

Sir B. Head, the Governor-General, in a despatch dated 15th December, 1855, objected to Mr. Oliphant's plan, and enclosed with his approbation a report of Lord Bury, embodying a scheme for gradually effacing from the estimates of the Imperial Parliament all charges for the Indians of Canada. In this report, the conduct pursued towards the Indians of America by the Spanish, United States, and British Governments, is contrasted.

Spain appearing to assume that the Pope had granted their land to the Spaniards, refused altogether to recognise any rights of the Indians; and took little further trouble about them, except to enslave them, or to defend themselves from constant and harassing attacks.

The United States authorities deport whole tribes to more distant hunting-grounds, by peaceable means if possible, but, if necessary, by force, as often as the increasing tide of white emigration appears to demand wider bounds.

The system of Great Britain differed from the other two, much in practice and still more in theory. She acknowledged a qualified right of property in the red man by purchasing his land. She did not insist on her rights as conqueror, and, in return for the territory he ceded, promised him protection.

Assistance and protection of Government is still required by the Indians; and it is yet necessary to continue a department for Indian affairs under the control of the Imperial Government. Lord Bury proposes that for such a purpose a sum equal to the amount expended in 7 years—viz., 77,431*l.*—should be invested by the Imperial Government in Canadian debentures, guaranteed by the Provincial Government about 4,645*l.* a year.

The prospects and condition of the Indians are very hopeful. In Lord Bury's opinion, the only obstacle to intellectual equality between the white and red races is to be found in the difference of language. There is no want of mental capacity in an Indian. The Indians support their own schools. As regards missions, the Methodists are the most successful.

Their system of classes, also, appears best suited to satisfy the mental wants of the Indian. By this system the converts are divided into small bands, each under the direction of a class-leader, whose business it is to exercise constant supervision over those under his immediate care.

The Lower Canadian Indians are mostly Roman Catholics, who have always been the first pioneers of Christianity. They Christianize, but they can hardly be said to civilize in an equal degree. This may be owing to the mode of instruction, which fails in sufficiently inculcating self-reliance. The Roman Catholic Indians are taught to look so exclusively to the missionaries for guidance, that in their absence they are almost entirely helpless. It is almost useless to convert, unless, along with the still greater lessons of Christianity, that healthy spirit of self-reliance be inculcated which constitutes the great distinguishing difference between the blind follower and the reasoning convert. Doubtless in Lower Canada there are difficulties to contend with that are not encountered in the Upper Province.

The Church of England are extremely successful where they have once established a foothold. On the Bay of Quinté, and among the Six Nations, their influence has been most beneficially exerted. Their converts are, however, not so numerous as the Methodist in Upper Canada.

In answer to these two reports the Right Hon. H. Labouchere, on the 21st February, 1856, sent a despatch to Governor-General Sir E. Head, stating that it has long been decided that the presents to the Indian tribes shall cease in 1858. Acknowledging the propriety of continuing the Indian department he could not approve of Lord Bury's proposal of a Parliamentary grant of 77,000*l.*, to be invested in Canadian Debentures. For two or three years subsequent to the cessation of the Indian presents, it is probable Parliament will not object to an application for a sum not exceeding 3,000*l.* per annum in aid of the Indian department, but after this time the funds for its support are to be derived by the more efficient and profitable management of the extensive property belonging to the Indians.

No. LI.—PRISONS IN SCOTLAND.

*Seventeenth Report of the General Board of Directors of Prisons in Scotland.**[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]*

FROM a digest of returns from the Prison Boards of the several counties in Scotland of the prisoners confined in their respective prisons on the last day of June, 1855, it appears that there are in Scotland 71 prisons, having accommodation, in the criminal department, for 2,169 cells for males, and 955 for females; and, in the civil department, for 127 males, and 21 females. On the 1st July, 1854, there were confined 2,682 criminal prisoners, of whom 326 were untried, and 2,356 convicted, besides 52 civil prisoners. The number received during the year to the 30th June, 1855, was, criminal prisoners, 30,328, including cases of re-commitment within the year, and 17,322 not including such cases, of whom, 11,226 were males, and 6,096 were females. Civil prisoners, 625: males, 591; females, 34. Total number in confinement during the said period, including cases of recommitment, 23,009 criminal, and 677 civil. The number removed to other prisons to undergo the last portion of their confinement, 1,310. The average duration of confinement of each criminal prisoner was 196 days in the general prison at Perth, 30 days in Edinburgh, 48 days in Glasgow. The average daily number in confinement during the year in all prisons was 2,473 criminal, and 60 civil. The average daily number of criminal prisoners in separate confinement was 1,776: males, 1,266; females, 510. Of the 19,329 prisoners received during the year, 1,914 were under 16 years of age; 1,351 sixteen years and under eighteen; 2,471 eighteen years and under twenty-one; 12,302 twenty-one years and under fifty; and 1,291 fifty years and above.

2,867 prisoners had been confined in the same prison during the year once before; 1,425 twice; 889 three times; 604 four times; 478 five times; 706 six times and under ten; 533 ten times and under twenty; 427 twenty times and under fifty; 87, fifty times and upwards: total, 8,006; 3,668 males, and 4,138 females. The sentences of criminal prisoners convicted were 2,363 ten days and under; 7,347 eleven days and not above sixty days; 627 above sixty days and under six months; 505 six months and under one year; 276 one year and under two years; 7 two years and under three years; total, 11,125; 6,745 males, and 4,380 females. 643 prisoners were imprisoned until caution was found to keep the peace; 3,587 until or instead of payment of fines; 14 were condemned to transportation for fourteen years; 27 for fifteen years; 8 for twenty-one years; and 9 for life; 168 to penal servitude for four years; 50 above four, and not above six years; 8 above eight years, and not above ten years; 1 to death; total sentences, 15,640; of whom 9,157 males, 6,483 females. 156 juvenile male offenders were sentenced to be whipped only, 83 to be whipped in addition to imprisonment, and 2 whipped, imprisonment, and hard labour. 3,271 were condemned to imprisonment with hard labour, 89 were insane prisoners. Of

18,632 prisoners, 4,232 could not read; 10,347 could read with difficulty; and 4,053 could read well; 9,006 could not write; 733 could sign their name merely; 7,341 could write with difficulty; and 1,567 write well; 380 had learned more than mere reading and writing; 2,768 of these have improved in reading or writing, or both; during the period 918 have improved in arithmetic, or other branches of instruction, and 743 have learned a trade in prison.

Of the civil prisoners, 35 were in prison for the payment of fines or forfeitures of 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* and under; 240 for a sum above 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* and under 20*l.*; 199 for 20*l.* and under 50*l.*; 63 for 50*l.* and under 100*l.*; 57 for 100*l.* and under 500*l.*; 3 for 500*l.* and under 1,000*l.*; 6 for 1,000*l.* and upwards; 28 civil prisoners have consented to work, and 654 have not consented. The total expenditure for the year was 54,286*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* The salaries amounted to 19,857*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; the furniture, fittings, &c., 1,311*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*; prison diet, 13,285*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*; contingent alimentary charges, 828*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.*; clothing, 3,565*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; bedding, 363*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*; lighting, 1,473*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*; fuel, 2,786*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*; repairs, &c., 7,425*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* The gross cost per prisoner, including all expenses, in the year ended the 30th June, 1855, was 20*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* The average earnings per head available for prison, 2*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* Net cost per head, after deducting earnings, 17*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*

NO. LII.—CONVICT PRISONS.

Report of the Directors of Convict Prisons on the discipline and management of Pentonville, Parkhurst, and Millbank Prisons; and of Portland, Portsmouth, Dartmoor, and Brixton Prisons, and the Hulks, for the year 1855.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

PENTONVILLE PRISON.

ON the 31st December, 1854, there remained 438 prisoners; in the year 1855 there were admitted 453. Total, 991. Of these, 714 were transferred to other prisons, 5 pardoned, 5 died, 1 committed suicide, 1 discharged, and 2 embarked with tickets-of-leave. On the 31st December, 1855, there remained 261 prisoners. Of the 453 admitted in the year, 43 were under the age of 17 years, 212 were between 17 and 25, 69 between 25 and 30, 40 between 30 and 35, 30 between 35 and 40, 16 between 40 and 45, 18 between 45 and 50, 14 between 50 and 60, and 3 between 60 and 65 years. The total cost, exclusive of buildings, amounted to 15,295*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.*, which was reduced by receipts and productive labour to 14,379*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* The average daily per-centage of sick was 2·77. The report is signed by J. Jebb, Colonel R.E., chairman, and D. O'Brien, Director of Convict Prisons.

PARKHURST PRISON.

At the commencement of 1855 there were 536 prisoners at Parkhurst.

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During the year there were received 100. Total, 636. Of these, 205 were disposed of, of whom 141 were liberated on license, and 431 remained on the 31st Dec. 1855. The total cost of the prisons, exclusive of buildings, and deducting receipts, &c., was 14,841*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*

MILLBANK PRISON.

The number of male prisoners remaining on the 1st January, 1855, was 697. During the year there were received 1,761 convicts. Total, 2,458. Of these, 1,533 were transferred to other convict prisons, 2 were sent to Australia, 417 to convict hulks, gaol, &c., and 506 remained in prison on the 31st December. The greatest number of male prisoners confined at any time, 6th February, was 1,090, and the daily average throughout the year, 824. The expense of the prison was 31,862*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* 263 female convicts were received, and 161 remained in prison on the 1st January, 1856.

Of the 2,024 prisoners received in 1855, 1,812 were 17 years and upwards, and 212 under 17 years. Of the adults, 362 could neither read nor write, 326 could read only, 926 could read and write imperfectly, 198 both well. Of the juveniles, 45 could neither read nor write, 45 could read only, 102 both imperfectly, 11 both well. As to religion, 1,378 belonged to the Church of England, 374 to the Church of Rome, 261 Dissenters and others, and 11 were Jews.

PORTLAND PRISON.

On the 1st January, 1855, there were confined 1,512 prisoners. In the year there were received 1,260. Total, 2,772. Of these, 561 were removed to Western Australia and other prisons, 3 had free pardons, and 684 were liberated by orders of license, and 4 on medical grounds, 1 sentence expired, 6 conditional pardon, and 7 died. The total value of the prisoners' labour during the year has been calculated at 40,120*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*, which, divided by the number of prisoners, 1,483, gives a rate per man of 27*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* The expense of the prison, deducting the value of productive labour, was 55,842*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.*

DARTMOOR PRISON.

On the 1st January, 1855, there were in prison 1,053 persons. During the year there were received 545. Total, 1,598. Of these, 137 were removed to Western Australia and other prisons, 495 were discharged by order of license, 1 escaped, and 2 died. On the 31st December, 1855, there remained 661 prisoners. The expense of the prison was 39,596*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*

PORTSMOUTH PRISON.

On the 1st January, 1855, the number of prisoners was 1,022. During the year there were received 886. Total, 1,908. The removals consisted of 419; discharged by order of license, 458; expiration of sentence, 2; died, 10. Total, 889. Remaining on the 31st December, 1855, 1,019. The

expense of the prison was 34,312*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.* The total value of the prisoners' labour in the year has been 30,276*l.* 18*s.* 3½*d.*, the average number of men in the prison being 1,000.

HULK ESTABLISHMENT.

On the 1st January, 1855, there remained in confinement 1,356 prisoners, and during the year there were received 1,235. Total, 2,591. There were removed to other prisons, &c., 549, discharged by order of license 633, deaths 41. On the 31st December, 1855, there remained in confinement 1,361 prisoners. The value of the labour performed by an average number of 622 men daily has been estimated at 16,621*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*, giving the rate per man of 26*l.* 14*s.* 5½*d.* The expenditure of the hulks during the year has been 44,893*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*

BRIXTON PRISON.

On the first of January, 1855, the number of convicts in Brixton prison was 643. During the year there were received 108. Total, 751. During the year, 12 were removed to Milbank prison, 88 were discharged by license, and 19 on medical grounds; 7 died. On the 31st December, 1855, there remained 621 convicts. The expense of the prison for the year ending 31st March, 1856, was 17,074*l.* 9*s.*

No. LIII.—MILITARY PRISONS.

Report on the Discipline and Management of the Military Prisons, 1855, by Colonel Jebb, C.B., Inspector-General of Military Prisons, &c.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

THE establishment of prisons exclusively for military offenders originated in 1842 with Lord Hardinge, who appointed a committee of investigation on the subject. With regard to the duration of punishment, Colonel Jebb was of opinion that it is necessary to preserve, under all circumstances, the general prestige of a severe punishment, either by the length of the period of confinement or the stringency of the discipline. It is a mistake to tamper with punishment if it be designed to have any effect at all on crime. The principal cause of crime in the army is drunkenness. It is a striking fact that whilst in England the committals for drunkenness are in the ratio of about 17 per cent.; in Ireland they have been nearly three times, and in Scotland sometimes twice as much. In 1847 in England, the average force being 38,398, the number of committals for drunkenness was 307, or 0·79 per cent. In Scotland the force 3,686, number of committals 57, per-centage 1·54. Ireland, force 24,985, number of committals 339, per-centage 1·35. In 1855, in England the average force was 70,298, the number of committals 250, per-centage 0·35. Scotland, average force 8,270, committals 32, per-centage 0·38. Ireland, average force 40,149, number of committals 311, per-centage 0·77.

The military prisons in operation in 1855 were, in England, at Chatham, Gosport, Weedon, and Devonport. In Scotland, Greenlaw, near Edinburgh. In Ireland, at Dublin, Cork, Limerick, and Athlone. Abroad, at Gibraltar, Quebec, Halifax (Nova Scotia), Bermuda, Vido (Ionian Islands), St. Elmo (Malta), Mauritius, and Barbadoes. These 17 prisons were capable of accommodating 1,250 prisoners. The total number of prisoners admitted was, in 1849, 3,533; 1851, 3,266; 1855, 5,322. The proportion per cent. of these admissions to the force was—in 1849, 5·36; 1850, 5·06; 1854, 4·78; 1855, 4·48. The average length of sentences in 1849 was 99 days; in 1855, 77 days. Of the 5,322 prisoners in 1855, 1,577 were under 20 years, 3,185 from 20 to 30, 528 from 30 to 40, and 32 above 40 years. 3,902 had a service of 2 years and under, 692 under 7 years, 512 from 7 to 14 years, 188 from 14 to 21 years, and 28 above 21 years. 2,983 were English, 557 Scotch, 1,742 Irish. 3,266 were Protestants, 344 Presbyterians, 1,715 Roman Catholics.

The crimes were as follows:—in 1847, the average force being 67,069, the number of desertions was 1,481, per-centage 2·20; absence without leave 823, per-centage 1·22; drunkenness 703, per-centage 1·04; disgraceful conduct 187, per-centage 0·27; other crimes 656, per-centage 0·97. In 1855, the force 118,717; desertion 2,441, per-centage 2·05; absence without leave 1,201, per-centage 1·01; drunkenness 593, per-centage 0·49; disgraceful conduct 275, per-centage 0·23; other crimes 812, per-centage 0·68.

The expenditure on account of the prisons in 1847 was 13,741*l.*, and in 1855, 15,933*l.* The full pay and beer money of prisoners in confinement not issued amounted to 13,310*l.* in 1847, and 13,868*l.* in 1855.

The average number of prisoners in military prisons in 1847 was 672; in 1855, 562; in barrack cells, in 1847, 242; in 1855, 269. In 1845 there were 652 corporal punishments, or 0·52 per cent. to the effectives; in 1855, 2,217, or 1·04 per cent. Out of the 2,217 cases, however, 1,117 were inflicted in the Crimea.

The number of committals in 1855 was 808, of whom 488 were English, 72 Scotch, and 248 Roman Catholics. The number of re-committals has considerably decreased since 1850. The health of the prisoners has improved since 1854. In 1855 the number treated for sickness was 15 per cent., whilst in 1854 it was 21 per cent. The effects of the discipline are summed up as follows:—In 1843 the number of soldiers imprisoned at any one time under sentence by courts-martial in civil prisons, exclusive of those who might be in confinement by order of commanding officers, were in the ratio of 20 in 1,000.

In the five years from 1847 to 1851, after the military prisons were brought into operation, the average number in confinement, including also those in barrack cells, by order of commanding officers, amounted to little more than 14 in 1,000. During the following three years, from 1852 to 1854, the number was still further reduced to about 11 per 1,000. In

1855 it was only 7 per 1,000, but this falling off may be attributed to the bulk of the army being in the East.

In the year 1845 the number of corporal punishments (in addition to the great proportion of men then under sentence of imprisonment in civil gaols) was in the ratio of 5·2 in a thousand, whereas in the five years from 1850 to 1854, whilst the number undergoing imprisonment had been diminished from 20 in 1,000 to 11 or 12, the number of corporal punishments had been also reduced to 2·5 per 1,000, or little more than one-half in both cases.

No. LIV.—PRISONS (IRELAND).

Thirty-fourth Report of the Inspector-General on the general state of the Prisons of Ireland, 1855.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE decrease of crime continues steadily. On the 1st January, 1850, the number of prisoners in gaols was 10,967; on the 1st January, 1856, the number was 3,561. In 1850 the number of prisoners confined in gaols was 115,871, or a daily average of 11,496. In 1855 the total number was 54,531, and the average 4,418. The number of debtors committed in the year 1855 was 944. The total of committals in 1855, as compared with 1854, shows a decrease of 11,999, viz., 7,539 males and 4,460 females, equal to 19·81 per cent. According to the classes of crimes, there were convicted at quarter sessions 3,045 felons, of whom 1,580 were males and 1,465 were females; and 1,123 misdemeanants, of whom 890 were males and 233 were females. And 13 criminal lunatics. Summary convictions: 4,851 offenders under Larceny Acts, 11,850 misdemeanants, 484 dangerous lunatics, 458 under revenue laws, 924 under poor laws, 386 courts-martial, 800 deserters, 7,599 under vagrant act, 9,040 drunkards, viz. 4,797 males, and 4,243 females; not convicted, 7,873.

The provinces show the following reductions in the committals of 1855 as compared with 1854:—Munster, 25 per cent.; Leinster, 23 per cent.; Connaught, 11 per cent.; and Ulster, 2·55 per cent. only. From the nature and number of sentences, it appears that 4,166 males and 2,651 females, in all 6,817, were sentenced for more than one month, whereas no less than 16,089 males and 15,589 females, in all 31,678, or five-sixths of the whole 38,495, were under sentences varying from twenty-four hours to one month; and further, that the average length of imprisonment under sentence for each of these 31,678 prisoners, was only 12 days and 14 hours. Of the 48,446 persons committed, 346 males and 188 females were ten years and under; 5,295 males and 1,259 females, 11 to 16 years; 3,923 males and 3,225 females, 17 to 20; 8,765 males and 10,142 females, 31 to 40; 4,080 males and 3,623 females, 40 years and upwards; 73 males and 26 females, no registry.

7,907 males and 3,249 females could read and write, 4,549 males and 5,007

females read imperfectly, 2,027 males and 1,146 females knew spelling, 1,448 males and 899 females knew the alphabet, 10,649 males and 11,466 females wholly illiterate. 2,489 males and 2,100 females were Episcopalians, 642 males and 302 females were Presbyterians, 23,449 males and 19,365 females were Roman Catholics.

The net expenditure in 1855 was 79,805*l.* 7*s.* 3½*d.*; the total cost of each prisoner, 18*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*

Of juvenile offenders there were 5,641 males and 1,447 females; total, 7,088. The number of juveniles recommitted once was 594; twice, 291; three times, 140; four times and upwards, 351. According to the police tables the degree of vagrancy has diminished in proportion of other offences. The parentage of juveniles shows that 1,846 males and 480 females had both parents living; 1,946 males and 408 females had both parents dead; 1,217 males and 394 females had their father dead; 632 males and 165 females had their mother dead. The analysis of the different tables in the report shows—First, as to Parentage.—32·81 per cent., or one-third, had both parents living; 33·21 per cent., or one-third, had both parents dead; 22·72 per cent. had lost their fathers, and 11·24 per cent. had lost their mothers, making together one-third who were orphans of one parent; 6·06 per cent. were step-children, 5·05 per cent. had been abandoned by their parents, 5·96 per cent. had absconded from their parents, and only 1·34 per cent. were illegitimate. Secondly, Education.—19·92 per cent., or one-fifth, could read and write; 20·3 per cent., or one-fifth, could read imperfectly; 12·24 per cent. could spell, and 4·4 per cent. knew their alphabet, comprising about one-sixth; and 43·12 per cent., or rather more than two-fifths, were wholly illiterate. Thirdly, Religion.—5·78 per cent., or little more than one-twentieth, were of the Established Church; only 0·88 per cent. were Presbyterians; and 93·32 per cent. were Roman Catholics. Fourthly, Residence.—66·81 per cent., or two-thirds, came from the town or county in which the gaol to which they were committed is situated; but 33·18 per cent., or no less than one-third, were strangers.

There appears to have been some slight improvement in the state of education in the juvenile offenders during the past year; but neither in this respect nor under the other headings has 1855 differed so much from 1854 as to require any particular notice.

No. LV.—CONVICT PRISONS (IRELAND).

Second Annual Report of the Director of Convict Prisons in Ireland, under 17 & 18 Vict., c. 76.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

THE accommodation for convicts in the Government prisons on the 1st January, 1856, was estimated at 3,490. The accommodation for female convicts was 630. The number in custody in the Government prisons on the 1st January, 1856, was 3,209; in the county and city gaols, 253. The

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number sentenced during the year to transportation was 33; to penal servitude, 485. During the year there were removed to Bermuda 300 convicts; discharged, after having completed their sentences at home, 632; and at Bermuda and Gibraltar, 820. Total, 1,120. The convicts have been employed on the public works at Spike Island, Haulbowline, and the forts at the mouth of Cork harbour, or at trades in the other prisons.

Much has been done towards separating the juveniles from the adults, and for establishing a proper system of education in the prisons. Great difficulties present themselves in the final disposal of female convicts. A woman immediately on discharge from prison is totally deprived of any honest means of obtaining a livelihood; and for the purpose of providing situations for the inmates, and so preventing their relapse into crime, a *Société de Patronage* is about to be formed. Considerable improvements have been made in the hospital accommodation. The cost of maintenance of the convict prisons in Ireland in 1855-6 was 73,832*l.* 12*s.*, and per prisoner, 18*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.* The Presbyterian Chaplain of the Mountjoy prison reported that, upon conversation with the prisoners in their cells, he found that the pregnant causes of crime were early parental neglect, intemperance, desecration of the Sabbath, and evil companions. The head schoolmaster's report on the Spike Island prison calls attention to the injurious effect of *whitewash* on the eyes, and suggests to substitute for it *coloured* limewash. The general report is signed by Walter T. Crofton, Chairman, and C. R. Knight and John Lentaigne, Directors.

NO. LVI.—FINES AND PENALTIES (IRELAND).

Abstract of the Account of all Fines and Penal Sums accounted for under the provisions of the Act 14 & 15 Vict., c. 90, for the year ending 31st March, 1855; showing the total amount imposed within said period, the proceedings had in respect thereto, and the money received on account thereof, as well as on account of arrear cases up to 31st March, 1856. (339.)

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

THE total amount of fines imposed was 39,557*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* The amount paid was 24,262*l.* 3*s.* 11*d.* This amount was applied as follows:—3,647*l.* 14*s.* 5½*d.* to treasurers of boroughs, public officers, and private parties; 1,823*l.* 1*s.* 3½*d.* to constabulary for reward fund; 6,494*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.* to any parties as costs; 135*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.* postage; 111*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.* balance chargeable against officers of courts; 12,049*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.* lodged in the Bank of Ireland to credit of Receivers of Constabulary and Police Force. The sum of 2,038*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* was remitted or averred on appeal before parties were committed to gaol; 11,381*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* for which parties were committed to gaol in default of payment; 2,002*l.* 16*s.* 2½*d.* not enforced by reason of the death or absconding of the parties, &c. 189*l.* 10*s.* for which warrants were issued to sheriffs to be accounted before the Exchequer.

No. XLV.—RUSSIAN PRIZES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 23rd May, 1856, for Return of the names and number of Russian armed vessels and merchant vessels captured in the years 1854 and 1855; stating their armament, tonnage, and cargoes, and what number were condemned in England or elsewhere as prizes, and what number destroyed; also the names of Her Majesty's ships and captains engaged in the capture of the said vessels. (Admiral Walcott.) (430.)

THE return gives particulars of 206 vessels captured during the late war, and against which proceedings have been taken in the High Court of Admiralty. Of these, 78 were Russian, 3 Hanoverian, 8 Swedish, 26 Danish, 3 Norwegian, 5 Dutch, 4 Moldavian, 13 Wallachian, 2 Servian, 2 Samian, 1 Turkish, 2 British, 2 Lubeck, 3 Hamburg, 2 Tuscan, 8 Greek, 2 Ionian, 8 Mecklenburg, 1 Montevidean, 2 Prussian, 1 Oldenburg, and 6 had no colour. 34 vessels were laden with salt, 2 with wine, 8 linseed, 23 grain, 2 troops, 3 tar, 1 salt fish, 8 timber, 1 tallow, &c. &c. 160 vessels were condemned, 30 were restored, and 16 were condemned only in part, or not adjudicated on.

No. XLVI.—ARMY, COMMISSARIAT, AND ORDNANCE.

Accounts of Army, Commissariat, and Ordnance Receipt and Expenditure for the year ended 31st March, 1855; with Reports of Commissioners of Audit.

[Pursuant to Act 9 & 10 Vict., c. 92, s. 2.] (421.)

Army Receipt and Expenditure.—The aggregate amount of the ordinary grants for army services in 1854-55 was 8,165,486*l.*, and the appropriation in aid, viz., the contribution from the revenues of the Australian Colonies in aid of military expenditure was 25,219*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*, making together 8,190,705*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*, and the total expenditure was 8,223,710*s.* 3*s.* 10*d.*, leaving a deficiency of 33,004*l.* 9*s.*

Commissariat Receipt and Expenditure.—The total expenditure in the year 1854-55 for commissariat effective services, including the expenditure occasioned by the war, was 1,235,398*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*, being an increase beyond the ordinary effective grant of 635,127*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*

On the vote for non-effective services there was a saving of 3,773*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*, which has been applied in aid of the increased expenditure beyond the ordinary grant for effective services, under the provisions of the Appropriation Act, leaving a net deficiency of 631,353*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*

The increased expenditure occasioned by the war has amounted to 683,313*s.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, but as, irrespectively of that increase, there was a net saving of 48,186*l.* 8*s.* on the ordinary expenditure for effective services generally, the deficiency caused by the war in the ordinary grant for com-

missariat effective services for 1854-55 was, as stated above, and as explained on the debit side of the account, 631,353*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*, which deficiency has been made good by the special votes of 3,000,000*l.* each, appropriated by the Acts 17 & 18 Vict., c. 121, s. 18, and 18 & 19 Vict., c. 129, s. 17, "to provide for any additional expense arising out of the war with Russia."

Ordnance Receipt and Expenditure.—The total amount expended for ordnance services is 5,406,165*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*

The amount granted by the Acts 17 & 18 Vict., c. 121, and 18 & 19 Vict., c. 129, for ordnance services, was 5,986,662*l.*, but a sum of 240,300*l.* therein included for forage for cavalry and artillery horses in Great Britain and Ireland having been transferred to the commissariat, there remained a net sum of 5,746,362*l.* as the amount of grants, thus leaving an unappropriated surplus of 340,196*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*

No. XLVII.—ALDERSHOTT CAMP.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 25th July, 1856, for Return showing the total number of acres purchased by the Nation at Aldershott, and the total cost of the land so purchased, the cost of the huts and other buildings, in each year, and any other expense connected with the permanent establishment of the camp; and the total number of troops stationed at Aldershott in each year, distinguishing Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, Infantry, Militia, and Foreign Legion. (Mr. Locke King.) (425.)

THE quantity of land purchased for the camp at Aldershott, is 7,062 acres 3 r. 35 p. at a cost of 131,445*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.* The total cost of the huts and new barracks in 1854-5, was 48,039*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*; 1855-6, 331,947*l.* 3*s.*; and from the 1st April to 31st July, 1856, 106,516*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* Other expenses incurred in the same period, 1,776*l.* 11*s.* 11*d.* The number of troops stationed in 1856 was, cavalry, 64 officers and 1,256 non-commissioned officers and men; artillery, 22 officers and 702 men, &c.; engineers, 8 officers and 83 men; infantry, 904 officers and 20,298 men; foreign legion, 265 officers and 3,842 men. Total, 1,263 officers and 28,181 men.

No. XLVIII.—COMMISSARIAT CHEST ACCOUNT.

An Account showing all the sums which have been received into the Commissariat chest, and which have been paid out of the same between the 1st April, 1854, and the 31st March, 1855; and of the assets and liabilities of the chest on the latter day.

[Presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's command.] (205.)

THE receipts for the year amounted to 11,218,665*l.* 10*s.* 0½*d.*, and the payments to 10,568,571*l.* 14*s.* 9½*d.*, leaving a cash balance on the 31st March, 1855, of 650,093*l.* 15*s.* 3½*d.* The liabilities of the commissariat chest were 2,992,185*l.* 16*s.* 5½*d.*, and the assets 3,438,910*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*, giving

a balance of 1,325,807*l.* 13*s.* 3½*d.* available for carrying on the service of the commissariat chest.

No. XLIX.—NAVAL PRIZE, BOUNTY, &c.

An Account showing the receipt and expenditure of Naval Prize, Bounty, Salvage, and other Moneys, between the 1st April, 1855, and the 31st March, 1856.

[*Prepared pursuant to Act 17 Vict., c. 19, s. 13.*] (275.)

THE receipts amounted to 108,496*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.*, of which 93,576*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.* proceeded from captures made under the Prize Act "Russia." The payments, 48,957*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.*, leaving a balance of 59,538*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.*, viz., 5,173*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.* unclaimed prize account, 1,928*l.* 47*s.* 7*d.* slave and tonnage bounty, 2,527*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.* salvage rendered by her Majesty's ships, 13*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.* bounty for destruction of Russian ships of war, and 49,895*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.* captures made under the Prize Act "Russia."

No. L.—DANISH SUCCESSION.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 18th Feb., 1856, for Copy of the Protocol of Warsaw relative to the Danish Succession and of the renewal of that Document by Russia in 1852. (Mr. Hutt.) (58.)

AFTER reference to the engagements entered into between the Emperor of Russia and the King of Denmark in 1767 and 1773, whereby the Emperor Paul ceded all his rights to the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, in favour of King Christian VII. and his male lineage, and also in favour of the late Prince Frederick, the king's brother, and of the male lineage of that prince, and having adverted to the danger therefrom arising out of the extinction of the male lineage of the King Christian VII., the undersigned, on behalf of their respective sovereigns, the present successors of the contracting parties, have, under date of Warsaw, 24th May (5th June), 1851, agreed amongst themselves, under the express reservation of the approbation of their respective sovereigns, as follows:—

1. The objects proposed in the interest of the peace of the North, as well as that of the internal peace of the House of Oldenburgh, namely, the maintenance of the integrity of the Danish monarchy, can only be realised by means of an arrangement summoning to the succession of the whole of the states of the King of Denmark, the male lineage solely, to the exclusion of women.

2. The male lineage of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein Sonderbourg Glücksbourg, and of his consort the Princess Louise of Hesse, unites in itself the rights of inheritance, which, on the extinction of the male line reigning in Denmark, devolve upon it in virtue of the renunciations of Her Royal Highness the Landgravine Charlotte of Hesse, of her son Prince

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Frederick of Hesse, and of her daughter the Princess Mary of Anhalt-Dessau.

3. Wishing on his part to complete the titles resulting from these renunciations, and thus to effect an arrangement which would be of such high importance and interest for the maintenance of the Danish monarchy in its integrity, the Emperor of Russia, as chief of the elder branch of Holstein Gottorp, would be ready to renounce the eventual rights which belong to him in favour of Prince Christian of Glücksbourg, and of his male lineage. Nevertheless it is understood, that the eventual rights of the two younger branches of Holstein Gottorp should be expressly reserved; that those which the chief of the elder branch should abandon for himself and for his male lineage in favour of Prince Christian of Glücksbourg and of his male lineage, should be revived in the Imperial House of Russia whenever (which God forbid) the male lineage of that prince should become extinct; that inasmuch as the renunciation of the Emperor would principally have for its object to facilitate an arrangement called for by the first interests of the monarchy, the offer of such a renunciation would cease to be obligatory if the arrangement itself should fail.

4. In consequence of the considerations which are above pointed out by the above sections 2 and 3, the Prince Christian of Glücksbourg, conjointly with the Princess, his consort, and in their default, the male lineage of their Highnesses, would have, more than any other branch, claims which qualify them to succeed, if the contingency should arrive, to the States actually united under the sceptre of His Danish Majesty.

Consequently the two Courts of Copenhagen and of St. Petersburg have agreed—That the King of Denmark shall designate the Prince and Princess of Glücksbourg conjointly as heirs presumptive of his Crown, in case the male line of the dynasty actually reigning should become extinct; that His Majesty shall make known his high determination to the Powers in amity with Denmark; that if, to ensure the complete success of this arrangement, still further renunciations should be deemed useful and desirable, it would be for His Danish Majesty to make himself responsible for the indemnities to which just and equitable claims should be established;

Finally, that the negotiations necessary to give to the arrangements in virtue whereof the Prince and Princess of Glücksbourg shall be acknowledged as successors presumptive to the throne of Denmark, the character of an European transaction, shall take place in London.

(Signed)

NESSELRODE.
MEYENDORFF.
PREEDTZ.

On the 26th April (8th May), 1852, Baron Brunnow transmitted to the Earl of Malmesbury a copy of a note addressed by him to the Minister of Denmark, upon signing the treaty of that date, renewing the reserves contained in the protocol of Warsaw of the 24th May (5th June), 1851, commencing with the third paragraph.

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No. XX.—CHOLERA EPIDEMICS OF LONDON.

Report on the last two Cholera Epidemics of London as affected by the consumption of impure Water, addressed to the President of the Board of Health by the Medical Officer of the Board.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

AFTER alluding to the circumstances under which the scientific committee on the cholera was appointed, and to the fact that, as often as Asiatic cholera had been epidemic in London, it prevailed with especial severity in certain registration districts on the south side of the river, viz., in St. Saviour's, St. Olave's, and St. George's, Southwark—in Bermondsey, Newington, Lambeth, Wandsworth, Camberwell, and Rotherhithe—the report proceeds to observe that, throughout these southern districts, two water companies, the Lambeth, and the Southwark and Vauxhall companies, were supplying water. 25,000 houses derived their water-supply from the Lambeth Company, and 40,000 from the Southwark. The Lambeth Company pumping from the higher part of the river, the Southwark and Vauxhall Company from the lower; the former furnishing as good water as any distributed in London; whilst the latter was purveying perhaps the filthiest stuff ever drunk by a civilized community. With such materials at hand it was further ascertained that in the 24,854 houses supplied by the Lambeth Company, comprising about 166,906 persons, there occurred 611 cholera deaths, being at the rate of 37 to every 10,000 living. In the 39,726 houses supplied by the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, comprising a population of about 268,171 persons, there occurred 3,476 deaths, being at the rate of 130 to every 10,000 living. The population drinking foul water accordingly appeared to have suffered $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as much the mortality as the population drinking other water. Taking a more limited locality, 3,034 houses, with about 20,000 inmates, divisible as it were into two populations, each the exact counterpart of the other, except in the one particular of water supply, one of these populations lost 57 persons by cholera, the other lost 164. The same results are visible in the epidemic of 1853-54. In houses supplied in 1854 with water by the Lambeth Company, the death-rate from diarrhoea per 10,000 of the population was 21; in houses supplied by the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, it was 33. The population drinking foul water suffered 57 per cent. more diarrhoeal mortality than the population drinking other water. Dr. Simon concludes his report by observing that the inquiry did not pretend to determine whether putrefiable drinking-water is a stronger or a weaker morbid influence than impure air or defective nourishment. Simply it asked whether, in certain large populations, breathing the same atmosphere, comprehending the same classes, and averaging the same habits of life, the fatal disease had been more prevalent among the drinkers of foul water than among the drinkers of clean water. The answer has

been affirmative. The cholera mortality of the former class was more than threefold that of the latter.

SYNOPSIS OF RESULTS.

Death-rate per 1,000 of living population in two epidemic periods. Cholera, 1848, in houses receiving water supply from the Lambeth Company, 12·5; from the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, 11·8; in 1853-54, from the Lambeth, 3·7; from the Southwark, 13·0. Diarrhoea, 1848-49, houses receiving water from the Lambeth, 2·9; from the Southwark, 2·7; 1853-54, from the Lambeth, 2·1; from the Southwark, 3·3. Between the two epidemic periods the Lambeth Water Company had changed its source of supply.

No. XXI.—LUNACY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 2nd June, 1856, for Copy of the Tenth Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy to the Lord Chancellor. (Mr. Vernon Smith.) (258.)

DURING the year 1855 additional accommodation for pauper patients in county asylums was provided in Cambridgeshire, Cheshire, Cumberland and Westmoreland, Dorset, Durham, Essex, Glamorgan, Carmarthen, Cardigan, and Pembroke; also in Gloucester, Lancaster, Leicester, Norfolk, Notts, Stafford, Sussex, Worcester, and Yorkshire. Numerous boroughs have as yet failed to provide asylums for their insane poor, and it becomes important to adopt measures for securing such a desideratum. The report gives a number of special instances showing that patients are sent from the boroughs to places at long distances from their homes. On the other hand, the practice of removing patients from one house to another is often attended with singular benefit. On the 1st January, 1856, there were in county asylums, 13,823 lunatics, of whom 13,573 were paupers and 250 private. The pauper lunatics were 6,166 males, and 7,407 females. The private, 132 males and 118 females. 12 were found lunatic by inquisition, 250 were criminal, and 1,000 were chargeable to counties or boroughs.

In hospitals there were 1,628 lunatics, of whom 182 were paupers and 1,446 private. Of these 791 were males and 837 females; 29 were found lunatic by inquisition, and 105 were criminals. In the metropolitan licensed houses there were 2,591 lunatics, of whom 1,351 were paupers and 1,248 private; 1,105 were males and 1,486 females; 96 were found lunatic by inquisition, 30 were criminal, and 82 were chargeable to counties or boroughs. In provincial licensed houses there were 2,601 lunatics; 1,506 pauper, 1,095 private; 1,386 males, 1,215 females; 115 were found lunatic by inquisition, 174 were criminals, and 108 were chargeable to

counties or boroughs. In the Royal Naval Hospital there were 121 lunatics. The total number of lunatics was 20,764; of whom 4,563 were private and 16,201 paupers; 9,701 males and 11,063 females.

No. XXII.—MEDICAL CHARITIES (IRELAND).

Fourth Annual Report of the Commissioners for administering the Laws for Relief of the Poor in Ireland, under the Medical Charities Act, 14 & 15 Vict., c. 68.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

IN the year ended 30th September, 1855, 732,563 persons were relieved in Ireland by 583,547 dispensary tickets and 149,016 visiting tickets, against 695,026 in the previous year. The total expense incurred amounted to 89,388*l.*, which, upon the Poor-law valuation of 11,564,927*l.*, gives a poundage of 1·86*d.* In the same year the number of vaccinations performed at the dispensaries was 46,711, against 52,844 in the previous year. Calculating the number of births at 218,400, and subtracting from this number one-third, 72,800, on account of deaths of infants, and of vaccinations performed by private practitioners, there remain 145,600 as the number of vaccinations which ought to have been performed gratuitously, against 46,711, which, added to the number vaccinated in the workhouses, viz., 4,453, gives 51,164, or 1 to 2·8. Much prejudice exists as yet against vaccination in Ireland.

No. XXIII.—TURNPIKE TRUSTS (IRELAND).

Report of the Commissioner appointed to inquire into the Turnpike Trusts, Ireland, 1856.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE entire extent of mileage under the turnpike system in Ireland was 325 miles. It appears on the other hand that 39,600 miles of good and safe highways are annually kept in repair by the people by two systems of taxation, one by taxing each locality, and the other by inclosing a particular portion of a roadway and excluding the public from its enjoyment until a certain sum of money be first paid by each person using it, as a provision for future repairs. The former is the presentment system under the 6 & 7 Will. IV., c. 46, the latter is the turnpike system. Having compared the two systems of raising funds for the purpose of road maintenance, the Commissioner came to the conclusion that it is desirable to abolish all the existing turnpike trusts in Ireland, as institutions not merely useless but prejudicial to society. The first highway act passed in England, 2 & 3 Ph. & Mary, is entitled, "An Act for Thamendyng of High Wayes," and commences thus: "For amending of Highways being nowe bothe very noisome and tedious to travel in and dangerous to passengers and carriages," &c. And then it enacts that the parishioners shall choose two persons to see that the

inhabitants give *four days' labour* (by 5 Eliz., c. 13, made *six days*) towards the repair of the highways, &c.

The first highway act passed in Ireland was the 11, 12 & 13 James I., c. 17, intituled "An Act for repairing and amending of Highways and cashes, and cutting or clearing of Waies."

The Commissioners having recommended that the turnpikes be all abolished, showed by calculations given in evidence that the expense of maintenance can be borne by the baronies through which the roads pass, in every case, by an almost imperceptible increase of their present taxation, such as $\frac{1}{4}d.$ in the pound, up to the highest (Belfast), where calculations range between $4\frac{1}{2}d.$, as given by the supporters of the system, and $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ and fifteen-sixteenths of a penny, as given by the opponents. The report is signed by Edward Clements, Commissioner, Queen's Inn Chambers, Dublin.

No. XXIV.—BURIAL FEES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 14th March, 1856, for Return of the Tables of Fees determined on by each of the Burial Boards, under the Acts 15 & 16 Vict., c. 85, 16 & 17 Vict., c. 134, and 17 & 18 Vict., c. 87, for burials in consecrated and unconsecrated grounds respectively, with the mode of appropriating such fees. (Mr. Bell.) (442.)

THE return comprises a variety of particulars as to fees and payments for burial, with the proportion allotted to the incumbent or minister in the consecrated ground, to the dissenting minister in the unconsecrated, to the clerk, sexton, &c. The charges differ materially in different places.

No. XXV.—NATIONAL VACCINE BOARD.

Annual Report of the National Vaccine Establishment, 1856.

[*Presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's Command.*] [370.]

In the course of the year, 220,639 charges of lymph have been sent out. In addition to the ordinary supplies furnished to public institutions, both at home and abroad, a large demand has been made, as a consequence of the war, from the various dépôts and regimental hospitals. The number of vaccinations reported is 128,495, of which 8,637 were performed by our stationary vaccinators in the metropolis. The letters received from correspondents have amounted to 10,539, many of which testify to the efficacy of the lymph, and the confidence placed in it by medical men and the public at large. The applications from Ireland continue to be as frequent as ever. The report is signed by Dr. Paris, President of the Royal College of Physicians, W. Lawrence, President of the Royal College of Surgeons, W. E. Page, M.C., Censor of the Royal College of Physicians, and C. Rue, M.D., Registrar.

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PROPRIETORS AND VALUATION (SCOTLAND). 57

No. XLIII.—PROPRIETORS AND VALUATION (SCOTLAND).

Return to Addresses of the House of Commons, dated 11th February and 2nd June, 1856, for Returns of the Number of Proprietors in each County in Scotland standing on the Valuation Rolls made up under the Act 17 & 18 Vict. c. 91. (Mr. Dunlop). (207.)

Return of the Valuation of the Counties of Scotland specifying the amount of each Parish and Borough under the Valuation Act, 17 & 18 Vict. c. 91. (Mr. Elliott Lockhart.) (408.)

COUNTY.	Number of Proprietors on Valuation Rolls under Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 91, qualified as Commissioners of Supply under section 19 of that Act.	Total Number of Proprietors on Valuation Rolls under Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 91.	Total Valuation of Counties under Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 91. Sterling.	Total Valuation of Burgh under Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 91.	Total Valuation of Counties and Burgh.
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Aberdeen -	548	3,920	526,640 18 6	198,172 7 2	724,813 5 8
Argyll -	218	180	272,037 8 3	19,041 16 11	291,236 11 1
Ayr -	496	7,516	640,926 9 5	82,652 3 7	723,578 13 0½
Banff -	92	3,167	150,728 15 0	10,144 7 0	160,873 2 0
Berwick -	158	1,467	296,709 8 11	2,031 16 6	298,741 5 5½
Bute -	10	278	31,841 15 0	21,725 18 6	53,567 13 6
Caithness -	58	66	79,520 10 0	14,387 6 0	93,907 16 0
Clackmannan -	39	39	69,706 19 0	...	69,706 19 0
Cromarty -	4	7	7,830 15 8	1,996 15 0	9,827 10 8
Dumbarton -	122	1,716	147,492 10 7	15,452 4 0½	162,944 14 8
Dumfries -	281	2,546	384,475 14 0	29,204 5 6	413,679 19 6½
Edinburgh -	242	1,783	402,064 5 1	918,890 5 4½	1,320,954 10 5½
Elgin -	47	1,662	113,954 6 8	22,635 19 4	136,590 6 0
Fife -	384	6,117	560,247 10 0	115,842 16 10½	676,090 6 10½
Forfar -	329	2,540	370,519 5 0	263,536 10 8	634,055 15 8
Haddington -	90	742	260,880 7 0	20,725 2 11	281,605 9 11
Inverness -	160	1,021	195,392 16 5	...	195,392 16 5
Kincardine -	149	1,230	172,191 19 5	1,650 17 1	173,842 16 6½
Kinross -	114	597	46,354 7 2	...	46,354 7 2
Kirkcudbright -	332	1,875	214,059 0 7	5,050 1 11	219,109 2 6
Lanark -	876	6,386	870,652 2 4	1,402,254 12 9	2,272,906 15 1½
Linlithgow -	61	1,201	129,403 18 7½	7,259 5 11	136,663 4 6½
Nairn -	12	12	22,979 16 8½	4,844 1 1	27,823 17 9½
Orkney -	36,557 0 0	4,540 7 10	41,097 7 10
Peebles -	68	193	75,639 12 7	3,851 18 0	79,491 10 7
Perth -	525	5,064	672,026 16 9	63,700 11 9	735,727 8 6
Renfrew -	216	2,610	318,280 0 3	218,192 11 1	536,472 11 4
Ross -	120	117	165,636 6 1	10,727 9 11	176,363 16 0
Roxburgh -	192	2,060	319,116 0 1	8,869 13 7	327,985 17 4½
Selkirk -	87	498	59,554 19 4	7,808 14 4	67,363 13 8
Shetland -	28	475	23,435 0 2½	...	23,435 0 2½
Stirling -	326	3,183	319,014 15 0	51,584 18 9	370,549 13 9
Sutherland -	7	272	46,789 0 0	542 5 0	47,331 5 0
Wigtown -	46	1,184	153,124 6 6	17,595 15 6	170,750 15 6
	6,437	61,724	8,155,972 6 2	3,544,962 19 10½	11,700,935 6 0½

No. XLIV.—PAUPER CHILDREN.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 20th June, 1856, for Return showing the Number of Children between three years and fifteen years of age chargeable to the Poor Rates of the several Parishes and Unions in England and Wales, but who shall not be Inmates of Workhouses or of any Schools for Pauper Children, on the 1st July, 1856, distinguishing the Number of such Children who shall then be attending Day Schools—1st, at the cost of their Parents or Relatives; 2nd, at the cost of the Poor Rates; 3rd, at the cost of other parties; 4th, the Number of such Children who shall then not be attending any Day School; and also 5th, those who shall then be in work. (Mr. Milner Gibson.) (437.)

THE total number of children who were attending day schools at the cost of their parents or relatives on the 1st July, 1856, was 58,243; the total number of children who were attending day schools at the cost of the poor-rates on the 1st July, 1856, 3,986; the total number of children who were attending day schools at the cost of other parties on the 1st July, 1856, 39,857; the total number of children who were not attending any day school on the 1st July, 1856, 52,434; the total number of children who were in work on the 1st July, 1856, 35,827.

No. XLV.—POOR LAW.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 24th July, 1856, for Returns showing the Amount of Money expended for In-Maintenance and Out-door Relief in Unions, &c., under the Poor Law Amendment Act, in England and Wales, during the half-years ended at Lady-day, 1855, and Lady-day, 1856, respectively; showing also the Number of Paupers of all classes in receipt of Relief on the 1st day of July, 1855, and the 1st day of July, 1856, in Unions, &c., in England and Wales; of the Number of Adult Able-bodied Paupers in receipt of Relief on the 1st day of July, 1855, and the 1st day of July, 1856; and showing the classes to which the Adult Able-bodied Paupers relieved belong. (Mr. Grey.)

IN 624 unions in England and Wales, comprising 14,131 parishes and a population of 16,521,245, there were expended in maintenance and out-door relief, 2,098,655*l.* in the half year ended Lady-day, 1856, against 2,036,785*l.* in the corresponding period in 1855, showing an increase of 61,870*l.* The number relieved on the 1st July, 1856, was 795,111, and on the 1st July, 1855, 812,594, showing a decrease of 17,483. On the same day in 1856 there were relieved, of adult able-bodied paupers, male and female, 14,442 in-door, and 108,545 out-door; total, 122,987, against 132,265 on the 1st July, 1855. Of the adult able-bodied relieved in-door, 259 males and 456 females were married couples; 78 were relieved in cases of sudden and urgent necessity; 15,552 in cases of their own sickness, accident, or infirmity; 6,001 on account of sickness, accident, or infirmity of any of the families, or of a funeral; 1,478 relieved on account of want of work or

other causes. Of the out-door relieved, 18,731 were wives of adult males; 50,307 were widows; 4,882 single women, without children; 2,889 mothers of illegitimate children; 2,038 wives relieved on account of husbands being in gaol, &c.; 2,264 wives of soldiers, sailors, or marines; 4,325 wives of other non-resident males. Total, in-door and out-door, 122,987.

Similar return was obtained by Mr. Bouverie for the half year ending at Michaelmas, 1854 and 1855; and of the number of paupers relieved on the 1st January, 1855 and 1856. (84.)

No. XLVI.—CHILDREN IN WORKHOUSES.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 26th June, 1856, for Return of the Number of Children in the Workhouses of the several Unions and Parishes in England and Wales, on the 25th day of March, 1856. (Mr. Miles.) (438.)

IN the workhouses of 653 unions in England and Wales, the population of which, according to the census of 1851, amounted to 17,660,215, there were 27,429 boys and 24,157 girls; total, 51,586. Of these, 3,001 boys and 2,785 girls were capable of entering upon service. 9,507 children were illegitimate, their mothers in the workhouse; 3,262 were illegitimate, their mothers not in the workhouse. 3,447 were children of widows who were in the workhouse, 1,680 of widows not in the workhouse; 1,250 of widowers in the workhouse, 1,000 of widowers not in the workhouse; 12,083 were children whose fathers and mothers were dead; 6,912 were deserted by their fathers, 2,273 by their mothers, and 2,017 by both parents; 1,330 whose fathers were transported or suffering imprisonment for crime; 1,855 whose residence in the workhouse is caused by the bodily or mental infirmity of their father or mother; 2,738 were children of able-bodied parents who were in the workhouse; 702 of able-bodied parents not in the workhouse; 1,530 were not included within any of the foregoing classes. 3,955 boys and 3,717 girls were under 3 years old; 6,886 boys and 6,166 girls, 3 years old and under 7; 16,588 boys and 14,274 girls, 7 years old and upwards.

No. XLVII.—POOR LAWS (IRELAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 12th Feb., 1856, for Return showing the total Number of Paupers in receipt of Relief on the first Saturday of January, 1855 and 1856, in the Unions in Ireland; and, total Number of Paupers in receipt of Relief in each Province of Ireland at the close of the first week (ending Saturday) of January, 1849 to 1856; also Expenditure for Relief of the Poor in 1855, compared with 1854. (Mr. Horsman.) (62.)

IN 163 unions in Ireland, with a population of 6,552,055 in 1851, there were relieved on the 1st January, 1856, 72,247 persons in-door, and 830

out-door; total, 73,086, against 86,819 on the 1st January, 1855, showing a decrease of 15·8 per cent. In the whole of Ireland the number of persons in receipt of out-door relief in 1849 was 423,355; in 1850, 104,650; in 1851, 2,719; in 1852, 3,170; in 1853, 3,058; in 1854, 2,198; in 1855, 1,523; and in 1856, 836. The poor-law valuation on the 29th September, 1855, was 11,584,927*l.*, and the poor-rate lodged during the year ended 29th September, 1855, 838,528*l.* The total expenditure for poor-law purposes was 686,028*l.*, against 760,153*l.* in the year 1854.

No. XLVIII.—PAUPERS (METROPOLIS).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 9th May, 1855, for Returns of the Number of Paupers admitted into the Poor Law Union and other Workhouses of the Metropolis, during the year ending 25th March, 1856; the Number who have been under Medical Treatment, and of Deaths; the Salary and extras of Medical Officer in charge; by whom Drugs were supplied; if by Guardians, stating cost; and similar Return in regard to Prisoners confined in the various Gaols and Houses of Detention in the Metropolis for the same period. (Sir John Shelley.) (427.)

DURING the year ended 25th March, 1856, there were admitted into the workhouses of the metropolis 67,801 paupers. 37,693 have been under medical treatment, and 5,253 paupers died. The salary of the medical officers varied between 80*l.* and 350*l.*

In Newgate prison there were confined in the same year 2,072 persons. The infirmary cases were 50; the cases treated, not requiring to be sent to the infirmaries, 16 daily; and there was one death. The medical officer has a salary of 150*l.* per annum, and an allowance of 40*l.* for drugs supplied by him. At the House of Correction at Holloway, there were 2,242 prisoners. The number of indisposed, 1,155; of deaths, 2. The salary was 150*l.*, and 50*l.* for drugs. At Coldbath Fields the number of prisoners was 8,113; the number who received medical treatment in the year was 1,962; the number of deaths, 28. Salary of medical officer 300*l.*, without any extra. At the House of Correction for Middlesex at Westminster, the number of prisoners was 7,980; amount of sickness, males, less than 1 per cent.; females, 3½ per cent.; number of deaths, 11; salary, 250*l.*, no extras. At the Middlesex House of Detention, Clerkenwell, the number of prisoners was 11,418; amount of sickness, 244; deaths, 1 (suicide); salary, 100*l.*, out of which the medical officer supplies the drugs and medicines, and attends twice daily. At the Pentonville Prison, the number of prisoners was 1,032; number of cases of sickness, 1,727; of deaths, 6; salary, 227*l.* 10*s.*; extra, 50*l.*, for house rent; allowed private practice. Drugs supplied by the authorities. At Horsemonger Lane, Surrey, the number

of prisoners was 3,511; amount of sickness, 462; of deaths, 1; salary, 120*l.*; extra, 30*l.* for drugs. At the Queen's Prison the number of prisoners in custody on the 25th March, 1856, was 143; number of deaths, 2; salary 150*l.*, and 50*l.* extra for medicines. At Whitecross-street Prison the number of prisoners was 2,358; amount of sickness in the infirmary, 80; out-patients, 114; number of deaths, 4; salary, 350*l.*, and no extra.

No. XLIX.—COUNTY TREASURERS.

Abstract of the Accounts of the Several County Treasurers in England and Wales for the year ending Michaelmas, 1855. (270.)

[*By Act 15 & 16 Vict., c. 81, s. 50.*]

THE total assessment for the county rates was 65,653,637*l.* 10*s.* 11½*d.* The total amount of debt, 1,805,002*l.* 8*s.* 9½*d.* The receipts amounted to 1,672,970*l.* 1*s.* 9½*d.* The receipts comprised county and police rates, 992,457*l.* 15*s.* 9½*d.*; allowance from treasury, 271,402*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*; on account of lunatics, 44,442*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; other receipts, 175,495*l.* 5*s.* 3½*d.* The disbursements amounted to 1,483,120*l.* 8*s.* 10½*d.*; and comprised rural police, superintending, and constables, 258,102*l.* 18*s.* 5½*d.*; conveyance of prisoners to gaol, 21,216*l.* 16*s.* 8½*d.*; gaol and House of Correction, 365,359*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*; prosecution of prisoners, 179,496*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*; conveyance of transports, 3,357*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*; shire halls, judges' lodgings, &c., 21,701*l.* 7*s.* 9½*d.*; lunatic asylum, 79,998*l.* 16*s.*; maintenance of pauper lunatics, 232,444*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*; vagrants, 1,451*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; county bridges, 59,594*l.* 15*s.* 0½*d.*; clerk of the peace, 43,720*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*; treasurer, 8,035*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.*; coroners, 56,881*l.* 8*s.* 9*d.*; inspector of weights and measures, 12,106*l.* 6*s.* 10½*d.*; interest and principal of debt, 103,544*l.* 2*s.* 11*d.*; incidental and other expenses, 215,645*l.* 6*s.* 11½*d.*; total, 1,483,120*l.* 8*s.* 10½*d.*

No. L.—NEW WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Proceedings which had taken place in relation to the New Westminster Bridge, and to consider the present state of that Structure, and the course which should be adopted in relation thereto.

THE Committee was nominated on the 3rd July, 1856, and consisted of Sir Benjamin Hall, Mr. Henley, Mr. Bramston, Colonel Boldero, Mr. Jackson, Mr. Ker Seymer, Mr. Tite, Sir John Shelley, and Sir William Jolliffe.

The Committee reported that they were of opinion that, having in view the extensive changes contemplated in the immediate neighbourhood of and

approaches to Westminster Bridge, the further progress of the works of the new bridge should remain suspended. They found that upwards of 50,000*l.* had been already expended.

The witnesses examined were Messrs. Alfred Austin, Secretary to the Board of Works; Thomas Page, Engineer for the same Board; James Meadows Rendel and James Simpson, civil engineers; Robert Stephenson, M.P.; Sir Benjamin Hall, M.P.; John Hawkshaw and John Fowler, civil engineers.

No. LI.—MR. JAMES SADLEIR.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 18th July, 1856, for

Copies of the Information and Warrant against Mr. James Sadleir, and of the Bills of Indictment, if any, found against him, and of the names of the Witnesses and finding of the Grand Jury thereon. (Mr. Roebuck.) (394.)

THE bench warrant is by the Lords Justices of Assizes for the Leinster circuit against James Sadleir, late of Clonacody, in the county of Tipperary, member of Parliament, charged with having conspired, by false pretences, to defraud the English shareholders and depositors of the Tipperary Joint Stock Bank of large sums of money.

No. LII.—BUSINESS OF THE HOUSE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for

Return of the Number of Motions which have been made in the House before the Orders of the Day and Notices have been disposed of, or in any Committee of the whole House in Session, 1856; with a tabular Summary of Motions for the last eight Sessions. (Mr. Brotherton.) (447.)

In the session, 1856, the motion "That this House do now adjourn," was withdrawn 13 times; negatived, 5 times; divided on, 2 times; total, 18.

"That this House will, at its rising, adjourn to Monday next, or any future day;" withdrawn, 2 times; agreed to, 2 times; total, 4.

"That the debate be now adjourned;" withdrawn, 4 times; negatived, 17 times; divided on, 13 times; total, 21.

"That the chairman of a Committee of the whole House do report 'progress;'" withdrawn, 11 times; negatived, 17 times; agreed to, 1; divided on, 10 times; total, 29.

"That the Chairman do now leave the chair," withdrawn, 2 times; negatived, 2 times; agreed on, 4 times; divided on, 3 times; total, 8. Total of proceedings—32 withdrawn; 41 negatived; 7 agreed to; 28

GRAND JURY PRESENTMENT (IRELAND).

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divided on; total of motions, 100. In the session 1855 the number of such motions was 46; in 1854, 55; in 1852-3, 56; in 1852, 30; in 1851, 74; in 1850, 86; in 1849, 42.

No. LIII.—SITTINGS OF THE HOUSE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856.

Return of the Number of Days on which the House of Commons sat in the Session of 1856, stating for each day the hour of meeting, hour of adjournment, &c. (Mr. Brotherton.) (448.)

During February, 1856 (including January 31st), the House sat 22 days, for 134 hours.

MONTH.	Number of days of sitting.	Number of hours of sitting.	Number of hours after midnight.	Number of entries in votes.
		H. M.	H.	
January and February - - -	22	134 0	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,531
March - - - - -	11	83 $\frac{1}{2}$ 0	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	622
April - - - - -	20	154 58	14	1,448
May - - - - -	16	125 50	18	1,391
June - - - - -	21	182 55	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,643
July - - - - -	20	185 59	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,407
Total - - - - -	110	869 27	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,042

Average Time of Sitting - - - 7 Hours, 54 Minutes, 14 Seconds.

No. LIV.—DIVISIONS OF THE HOUSE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for

Return of the Number of Divisions of the House in the present Session; stating the Subject of the Division, and the number of Members in the Majority and Minority, Tellers included; also, the Aggregate Number in the House on each Division, distinguishing the Divisions on Public Business from Private; and, also, the Number of Divisions before and after Midnight (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper, No. 492, of Session 1854-55). (Mr. Brotherton.) (449.)

SUMMARY OF DIVISIONS.

NUMBER of divisions on public business, before midnight, was 147; ditto, after midnight, 46; ditto, private business, before midnight, 5. Total number of divisions in session 1856, 198.

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No. LV.—SELECT COMMITTEES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for

Return of the Number of Select Committees appointed in the Session of 1856; the Subjects of Inquiry; the Names of the Members appointed to serve on each Committee, and of the Chairman of each; the Number of Days on which each Committee met, and the Number of Days on which each Member attended such Committee; the total Expense of the Attendance of Witnesses, and the Name of the Member who moved for each such Committee; also the total Number of Members, who served on Select Committees, and the number of Members who served on no Select Committee at all (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper, No. 489, of Session 1854-5.) (Mr. Brotherton.) (450.)

THE number of select committees appointed in the session 1856 was 42; the number of members who served on committees, 270; the number of members who served on no select committees, 380.

No. LVI.—PUBLIC PETITIONS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for

Return of the Number of Petitions presented in each of the five years ending 1788-9, 1804-5, and 1814-15; also, Number of Petitions presented and printed in each of the five years ending 1832; also, Number of Petitions presented and printed in each of the five years ending 1837, 1842, 1847, 1852, and 1856, with the total Number of Signatures in each year; also, Abstract of Sums paid for Printing, Folding, &c., of Public Petitions from 1828 to 1832, and of Sums paid for Printing, Folding, &c., Reports and Appendixes, and Indexes to Reports and Appendixes on Public Petitions, from 1833 to 1856, &c. (in continuation of Parliamentary Paper, No. 486, of 1854-5.) (Mr. Brotherton.) (451.)

THE number of petitions presented in each of the five years ending 1788-9, 1804-5, 1814-15, and also of the number of petitions presented and printed in each of the five years ending 1832, and the average of each period, was as follows:—1785, number of petitions presented 298; 1786, 156; 1787, 98; 1787-8, 201; 1788-9, 127; total, 880. Average of five years, 176. In 1801, 192; 1801-2, 158; 1802-3, 367; 1803-4, 168; 1804-5, 141; total, 1,026. Average, 205. In 1811, 132; 1812, 340; 1812-13, 1,699; 1813-14, 1,479; 1814-15, 848; total, 4,498. Average, 899. In 1828, 4,074; 1829, 4,041; 1830, 2,522; 1830-31, 10,220; 1832, 2,426; total, 23,283. Average, 4,656. Average of five years' petitions printed, 2,123. In 1833, the number of petitions presented was 8,058, signatures, 2,842,550; in 1834, 9,407 petitions, and 3,288,878 signatures; in 1835, 4,061 petitions, and 1,622,103 signatures;

1836, 5,835 petitions, and 1,765,859 signatures; in 1837, 9,822 petitions, and 2,598,823 signatures; total, 37,183, signatures, 12,118,213. Average, 7,436 petitions; signatures, 2,423,642. In 1837-8, the number of petitions presented was 9,516, signatures, 2,612,730; 1839, petitions, 13,737, signatures, 4,656,626; 1840, petitions, 18,646, signatures, 4,514,924; 1841, petitions, 17,981, signatures, 5,625,981—Sess. 2, petitions, 667, signatures, 45,234; in 1842, petitions, 9,525, signatures, 5,995,414. Total, 70,072 petitions, 23,450,909 signatures. Average, 14,014 petitions, 4,690,181 signatures. In 1843, petitions, 33,898, signatures, 6,135,050; 1844, petitions, 12,462, signatures, 4,877,924; 1845, petitions, 16,453, signatures, 2,460,717; 1846, petitions, 8,645, signatures, 2,374,217; 1847, petitions, 10,527, signatures, 1,428,073. Total, 81,985 petitions, 17,275,981 signatures. Average, 16,397 petitions, 3,455,196 signatures. In 1847-8, petitions, 18,504, signatures, 4,579,340; 1849, petitions, 9,947, signatures, 1,334,367; 1850, petitions, 16,137, signatures, 2,210,910; 1851, petitions, 12,021, signatures, 2,697,935; 1852, petitions, 5,639, signatures, 1,240,080. Total, 62,248 petitions, 12,062,632 signatures. Average, 12,449 petitions, 2,412,526 signatures. 1852, 5,639 petitions, 1,240,080 signatures; 1852-3, 11,164 petitions, 2,059,210 signatures; 1854, 10,387 petitions, 1,863,778 signatures; 1854-5, 10,036 petitions, 1,782,522 signatures; 1856, 13,867 petitions, 1,494,077 signatures. Total, 51,093 petitions, 8,439,667 signatures. Average, 10,218 petitions, 1,687,933 signatures. The total number of petitions presented in 24 years was 296,942, having 72,107,332 signatures. The number of petitions printed in 24 years, 30,526. The number of reports, 1,240. The sum paid for printing, folding, &c., reports and appendixes, and indexes to reports on public petitions, paper, &c., was 7,767*l.* from 1833 to 1837; 7,134*l.* from 1837 to 1842; 7,760*l.* from 1843 to 1847; 9,349*l.* from 1847 to 1852; 7,760*l.* from 1852 to 1856.

No. LVII.—PUBLIC BILLS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for

An Alphabetical List of the Public Bills which have been introduced into the House during the present Session; stating by whom introduced, or which have been brought from the House of Lords; the dates of their several stages in this House, and distinguishing those which have since become law.—In continuation of Parliamentary Paper No. 487 of Session 1854-5. (Mr. Brotherton.) (452.)

199 bills were introduced into the House of Commons, and 25 have been brought from the Lords. Of the 199 bills introduced, 100 received the Royal assent; and of the 25 from the Lords, 19 received the Royal assent.

No. LVIII.—PRIVATE BILLS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 17th July, 1856, for Return of the number of Private Bills introduced and brought from the House of Lords, and of Acts passed in 1856; of Private Bills treated as opposed by the Committee of Selection; and of unopposed Private Bills referred to the Committee of Ways and Means. (Mr. Brotherton.) (453.)

THE number of private bills introduced was 183; brought from the Lords, 16. Total, 199. The number of bills which have received the Royal assent was 161, of which 59 were for railways, 28 for roads and bridges, 15 for waterworks, 3 for ports, piers, harbours, and docks, 1 canal and navigation, 19 for paving, lighting, &c., 1 for gaols and other county buildings, 2 for inclosure and drainage, 17 miscellaneous, and 16 Lords' bills. The number of private bills treated as opposed, 117; number of private bills referred to the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, 74.

No. LIX.—PUBLIC BILLS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 25th July, 1856, for Return of the Number of Public Bills and their Titles, the Orders for which in any of their stages have been discharged during the present Session, and the Date of the Discharge of each of such Orders. (Mr. Disraeli.) (455.)

71 bills were introduced, the orders for which have been discharged, but 36 of them were not Government bills. 5 bills have come from the Lords, which were also lost or withdrawn.

No. LX.—GRAND JURY PRESENTMENT (IRELAND).

Abstract of the Account of Presentments made by the Grand Juries of the several Counties, Cities, and Towns in Ireland in the year 1855, pursuant to Acts 49 Geo. III., c. 84, s. 31, and 4 Geo. IV., c. 33, s. 18. (349.)

THE grand juries' assessments for 1855 were—New roads, bridges, pipes, &c., 83,196*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; repairs of roads, bridges, pipes, gulleys, or walls, 396,288*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.*; Court of Session House erection or repairs, 6,654*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.*; gaols, bridewell, house of correction building or repairing, 5,889*l.* 15*s.* 11*d.*; all other prison and bridewell expenses, including salaries, 93,187*l.* 12*s.* 7½*d.*; police and police establishment, and payments to witnesses, 3,095*l.* 7*s.*; salaries of county court officers, 102,223*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; public charities, 68,721*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.*; repayment of advances to Government, 108,422*l.* 8*s.* 9½*d.*; miscellaneous, 82,699*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.*; gross amount of presentments, 978,072*l.* 11*s.* 8½*d.*; amount of re-presentments, 10,859*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*; net amount of presentment, 967,212*l.* 13*s.* 5½*d.*

No. LXL.—SITE OF SMITHFIELD.

Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the appropriation of the Site of Smithfield, and the Establishment of a New Metropolitan Meat Market.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

THE Committee consisted of the Right Hon. William Cowper, M.P., the Hon. H. B. W. Brand, M.P., and Wm. N. Massey, M.P.

The Committee in their report considered the following three questions:—1st. What is the best appropriation of so much of the site of Smithfield as reverts to the Crown for the general advantage of the metropolis? 2nd. Whether it is expedient that a new metropolitan meat market should be established in lieu of Newgate and Leadenhall markets? and 3rd. If expedient, what would be the best site for such a market? It appears that the land in question consists of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres in the centre of the metropolis. It has always been an open place, and was used in the earliest times as a place for recreation for the citizens of London, as well as for a market for cattle, hay, straw, and other provisions. The site now called West Smithfield forms part of that field which was granted in the year 1638 by King Charles I. to the Corporation of the City of London, for the purpose of holding fairs and markets, which purpose ceased in accordance with the provisions of the Act of 1850. As to the appropriation of the site for a meat market, the Committee found that the present size of Smithfield is far too small to admit of its being used for that purpose, and they were of opinion that the best appropriation for the general benefit of so much of the site of Smithfield as reverts to the Crown, would be to adapt it for the enjoyment and recreation of the public. The Committee further discussed the question of the establishment of a new metropolitan market for the sale of dead meat; and as the experiment of establishing markets in different parts of the metropolis has been frequently tried and failed, they were satisfied that it is desirable to provide a single market for the metropolis, and that such a market ought to be placed in a central position.

No. LXII.—FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

Report of the Registrar of Friendly Societies in England. (376.)

[Pursuant to 18 and 19 Vict., c. 63, s. 45.]

THIS being the first report, the registrar adverted to the Act 18 & 19 Vict., c. 63: "An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to Friendly Societies," which regulates now all such societies, the purposes of which are to raise, by voluntary subscriptions of the members thereof, with or without the aid of donations, a fund for any of the following objects:—1. For

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insuring a sum of money to be paid on the birth of a member's child, or on the death of a member, or for the funeral expenses of the wife or child of a member. 2. For the relief or maintenance of the members, their husbands, wives, children, brothers or sisters, nephews or nieces, in old age, sickness, or widowhood, or the endowment of members or nominees of members at any age. 3. For any purpose which shall be authorized by one of her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, or in Scotland, as a purpose to which the powers and facilities of the Act ought to be extended. But no members can subscribe or contract for an annuity exceeding 30*l.* per annum, or a sum payable at death, or on any other contingency, exceeding 200*l.* Under the above provision (paragraph 3) the Secretary of State for the Home Department has authorized societies to be formed—First, for assisting members when they are compelled to travel in search of employment. Second, for granting temporary relief to members in distressed circumstances. Third, for the relief and maintenance of the members in case of lameness, blindness, or bodily hurt through accident. Fourth, for the purchase of coals and other necessities to be supplied to the members. Fifth, for the purpose of assuring the members against loss by disease or death of cattle employed in trade or agriculture. Sixthly, for the purpose of accumulating, at interest, for the use of the members, the surplus fund remaining, after providing for his assurance.

The report contains suggestions by Mr. John Tidd Pratt, the Registrar for the establishment of Friendly Societies, with tables of contributions for payments on sickness, &c., and also for the purchase of Government annuities per Act 16 & 17 Vict., c. 45.

No. LXIII.—COALWHIPPERS' OFFICE.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 20th June, 1856, for

Copy of Memorials to the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, from persons interested as Proprietors, Shipowners, or otherwise, in the Coal Trade, with respect to the establishment of an Office for Coalwhippers.
(Mr. Gladstone.) (324.)

THE petition, dated 18th June, 1856, signed by the Chairman of the Coal Trade, Chairman of the Shipowners' Societies of Sunderland and Shields, and other coal factors and merchants, make the proposal to establish an office for the registration, regulation, and hire of coalwhippers; and that instead of the present mode of forming the gangs or working parties the men shall be invited to present themselves in gangs. Wages shall in no case be paid at a public-house, but either on board the ships discharged, or at the office; the deduction from wages for the support of the office not to exceed one farthing in the shilling, unless a larger deduction shall hereafter be agreed upon by the men for the creation of a benevolent fund.

No. XLII.—CAPITAL PUNISHMENT (COLONIES).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 9th July, 1856, for

Return showing how far Crimes for which Capital Punishment has been abolished in England, are still capitally punishable in the Colonies and Dependencies of Great Britain, in continuation of Return, dated the 18th of February, 1850. (Mr. Ewart.) (255.)

IN CANADA.—The crimes capitally punishable are piracy, rape, carnal knowledge of a girl under 10 years of age, embezzlement by officers and of the post-office.

NEW BRUNSWICK.—In murder, are capitally punishable the persons accessory before the fact; offences, which before the 9th and 10th Geo. IV. would have amounted to petit treason, whether the person guilty be the principal or accessory; setting fire to, or destroying any ship, whereby the life of a person is put in danger; rape; carnal knowledge of a girl under 10 years of age; buggery, arson, burglary, robbery with assault, and exhibiting false lights or signals. In cases of felonies every principal in the second degree and every accessory before the fact is alike punishable with death.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.—Murder, administering poison, or using means to procure the miscarriage of a woman quick with child, rape, carnal knowledge of a girl under 10 years of age, sodomy, burglary, robbery from the person, arson, and sacrilege.

BERMUDA.—Rape and carnal knowledge of a girl under 10 years.

JAMAICA.—Forging or counterfeiting the Broad Seal of the Island, or any foreign coin, importing base coins, and counterfeiting the assay works of the assay masters.

HONDURAS.—Obeah-man, or he who is guilty of an African process of incantation against slaves and free persons of colour only. Ancient law but obsolete.

TURKS' ISLAND.—Sacrilege, piracy, burglary with violence, stabbing, wounding or poisoning, if any injury ensues which endangers life, arson, making false lights and signals, robbery with personal violence.

ST. VINCENT.—Murder, sodomy, and buggery; administering poison, or stabbing, or wounding with intent to murder, robbery with violence, burglary with intent to murder. Principals in the second degree, and accessories before the fact, are liable to the same punishment as principals in the first degree.

GRENADA.—Forgery, and wilful destruction of parish registers.

ANTIGUA.—Coining, falsifying, clipping, or filing current money.

NEVIS.—Arson, malicious burning, boat-stealing, burglary, demolishing houses or churches, forgery, infamous crime, administering poison, obeah,

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carnally abusing girls under 10 years of age, sodomy, treason high, treason petit, setting fire to vessels, and exhibiting false lights.

MALTA.—Bearing arms in the service of any foreign power, against Her Majesty's Government, for the purpose of subverting it, usurping the executive powers, taking up arms against the Government, obstructing its lawful authority, burning or destroying an arsenal, or a vessel afloat or in course of construction, a powder magazine, &c., burning any building or vessel, exhibiting false lights, &c., and a malicious breach of quarantine.

MAURITIUS.—Counterfeiting the Queen's Great or Privy Seal, the sign manual or Privy Signet, felonious compassing and imagining to depose our most gracious Lady Queen Victoria from the style and honour and royal name of the Imperial Crown of the United Kingdom, manslaughter preceded, accompanied, or followed by any other crime, burglary accompanied by personal violence, setting fire to any building or ship, boat, &c.

NEW SOUTH WALES.—Rape, forgery.

VICTORIA.—Riotous demolition of churches, houses, &c., rape, and carnal abuse of a child.

TASMANIA.—Attempting to procure abortion, arson, burglary with violence, carnal abuse of a child, riotous demolition of churches, houses, &c., destroying, embezzling, or secreting memorial of registry by clerks, attempting to poison, attempting to shoot a person, stabbing and wounding, rape, riot and remaining together one hour after proclamation, robbery, the offender being armed.

No. XLIII.—MADRAS REVENUE.

Return to so much of an Order of the House of Lords, dated 29th February, 1856, for

Return showing the gross amount of the Revenue of the several Provinces of Madras for the respective years 1803, 1813, 1823, 1833, and 1853, distinguishing the Land Tax from the other branches of Income, &c. (69. L.)

THE population of the provinces of Madras in 1823 was 13,508,535, and in 1850, 22,301,697. The revenue of the Presidency in 1823-24, was 5,498,765*l.*; in 1833-34, 4,358,207*l.*; in 1843-4, 5,074,194*l.*; and in 1853-54, 4,947,589*l.* In the latter year the land-tax produced 3,402,333*l.* Customs: salt, tobacco, small farms, Abkaree and Moturpha, 975,024*l.* Stamps, post-office, and miscellaneous receipts, 570,232*l.* The total receipts in 1803-4 amounted to 4,651,744*l.*, and in 1813-14, to 5,297,088*l.*

No. XLIV.—TAXATION IN MADRAS.

Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 29th February, 1856, for Copy of any Despatch or Despatches transmitted by the Honourable the Court of Directors of the East India Company to the Government of Madras, from the year 1853 to the present time, directing a Reduction of Taxation. (58. L.)

THESE despatches or revenue letters of different dates from April 1853 to September, 1855, sanctioning a reduction in the duty on salt, approved measures for averting suffering from the people in consequence of the failure of crops in the Presidency; detailed several measures for a revision of the assessment; authorized the reduction of some items of revenue, and sanctioned the substitution of an uniform rate of tax for the very unequal rates, that prevailed in the district of Trichinopoly.

No. XLV.—GOLD (AUSTRALIA).

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 20th June, 1856, for A Return of the Quantity of Gold exported from the several Ports in Australia in each year, from the Commencement of the Gold Discoveries to the end of the year 1855, and specifying, &c., to what Countries such Exports have been made. (Mr. Hankey.) (393.)

FROM New South Wales the quantity exported from the 29th May to the 31st December, 1851, was 144,120 ozs. 17 dwts. 16 grs., value 468,336*l*.; in 1852, 962,873 ozs. 16 dwts. 19 grs., value 3,600,175*l*. 18*s*. 3*d*.; in 1853, 548,052 ozs. 19 dwts. 21 grs., value 1,781,171*l*.; in 1854, 237,910 ozs. 13 dwts. 23 grs., value 773,209*l*.; in 1855, 64,384 ozs. 14 dwts. 3 grs., value 209,250*l*.

From Victoria, in 1851, 145,137 ozs. 3 dwts. 12 grs., value 438,777*l*. of which 344,944*l*. to Great Britain, and 93,833*l*. to British Colonies; in 1852, 1,988,526 ozs. 10 dwts. 13 grs., value 6,135,728*l*. of which 5,111,765*l*. to Great Britain, 1,013,730*l*. to British Colonies, and 10,233*l*. to Foreign States; in 1853, 2,497,723 ozs. 15 dwts. 16 grs., value 8,664,529*l*. of which 8,215,898*l*. to Great Britain, 221,567*l*. to British Colonies, 16,325*l*. to United States of America, 190,739*l*. to Foreign States; in 1854, 2,144,699 ozs. 9 dwts. 19 grs., value 8,255,550*l*. of which 7,919,468*l*. to Great Britain, 320,113*l*. to British Colonies, 3,575*l*. to United States of America, and 12,394 to Foreign States; in 1855, 2,575,745 ozs. 4 dwts. 17 grs., 11,363,980*l*.

No. XLVI.—EAST INDIA (REVENUE).

*Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 10th April, 1856, for
An Account exhibiting, in Sterling Money, the Gross and Net Revenue of
India, distinguishing the several Presidencies for the year ended the
30th April, 1854, &c. (83. L.)*

THE total gross revenue receipts of all the Presidencies of India for the year 1853-54 was 26,510,185*l.*, and the net receipt into the several government treasuries 19,705,080*l.* Of this amount the land revenue, &c., produced 12,110,434*l.*; customs, 1,054,715*l.*; salt, 2,173,478*l.*; opium, 3,149,080*l.*; stamp duties, 460,848*l.*, &c., &c. The net revenue of the Presidency of Bengal was 8,096,682*l.*; of the Eastern Settlements, 63,505*l.*; of the district of Coorg, 5,876*l.*; of the territory ceded by the Burmese, including the annexed provinces of Pegu and Martaban, 199,638*l.*; the North Western Provinces, including the annexed territories, 5,656,674*l.*; the Punjaub and Trans-Indus territory, 888,077*l.*; Madras Presidency, 3,315,513*l.*; Bombay Presidency, 2,636,211*l.*; Province of Scinde, 102,418*l.*; Province of Sattarah, 59,161*l.*

The total expenditure of India for the year ended 30th April, 1854, was 28,419,314*l.*; the receipt, 26,375,197*l.*; excess of expenditure over income, 2,044,117*l.* The expenditure comprised payments in realization of the revenue, 6,670,117*l.*; charges in India, viz., military charges and buildings, 10,460,899*l.*; judicial and police, 2,307,165*l.*; civil and political establishments, 1,973,227*l.*; interest on debt, 2,504,297*l.*, &c., &c.; charges in England, 3,262,289*l.* The cash balances in the treasury in India, on the 30th April, 1854, were 13,188,244*l.*; in England, 2,410,280*l.*; stock in the public fund, 882,953*l.*; total, 16,481,477*l.*

In the year ended the 30th April, 1854, there were received, in the shape of tribute, from the following states: Kotah, 10,584*l.*; Odeypore, 18,346*l.*; Boondee, 7,032*l.*; Mundy, 9,375*l.*; Doongurpore, 2,568*l.*; Jeypore, 37,500*l.*; Joudpore, 10,856*l.*; Serokee, 1,230*l.*; Jhalawar, 11,250*l.*; Banswarrah, 2,568*l.*; various petty States, 3,585*l.*; Nizam's Government, on account of Mahratta Choute, 20,161*l.*; subsidy from the Rajah of Nagpore, 75,000*l.*; total, Bengal, 210,055*l.* Peiscusch, and subsidy from Mysore Government, 229,687*l.*; Travancore Government, 74,666*l.*; Cochin Government, 18,750*l.*; total, Madras, 323,103*l.*; subsidy from the Cutch Government, 14,806*l.*; Kattywar tribute, 72,223*l.*; various petty States, 2,514*l.*; total, Bombay, 89,543*l.*: grand total, 622,701*l.*

The capital of the Home Bond Debt on the 30th April, 1854, was 3,899,500*l.*; interest thereon, 113,085*l.* 10*s.*; amount actually paid in the period, 112,012*l.* 0*s.* 2*d.* Stores were exported to India of the value of 420,529*l.*, viz., civil stores, 87,327*l.*; military stores, 239,497*l.*; marine stores, 93,705*l.*

No. XXXVII.—ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSIONERS.

Eighth General Report from the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England.

[Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.]

DURING the year ending the 31st October, 1855, the Bishops of Bath and Wells, Durham, Gloucester and Bristol, Lichfield, London, and Worcester, have in consideration of money payments transferred to the Commissioners portions of their respective episcopal estates.

An arrangement has been concluded with the Dean and Chapter of Gloucester for the transfer to the Commissioners of the capitular estates, upon terms similar to those already adopted in the cases of the Chapters of York, Carlisle, Chester, and Peterborough, referred to in former reports.

With a view to facilitating the necessary proceedings for the enfranchisement of certain estates belonging to the Archbishop of York, in which the Dean and Chapter of York have a beneficial interest during any vacancy of the see, an arrangement has been entered into for the transfer of the capitular interest to the Commissioners.

The Commissioners have passed a scheme for providing fixed instead of fluctuating annual incomes for one of the present Canons and for the future Canons of the Cathedral Church of Salisbury; and also for revising the arrangements contained in the Order of Her Majesty in Council of the 7th day of August, 1851, relative to the provision of the income of the present and future Deans of the same church.

Measures have been taken by the Commissioners for providing endowments for the several Archdeaconries of Berks, Carlisle, Lewes, and the East Riding of York. The Archdeaconry of Worcester has also received a further grant out of the common fund to make up its income to the amount of 200*l.* per annum, to which it was intended to be raised by the Order of Her Majesty in Council of the 3rd February, 1851, but which, upon investigation, it did not appear to reach.

The Commissioners have continued to give effect to the provisions of the Patronage Exchange Act, 16 & 17 Vict., c. 50, by the preparation of schemes for effecting further exchanges of patronage between the Crown and the Bishop of Oxford, and between the Bishop of Lincoln and the master and scholars of Baliol College, Oxford.

The Commissioners have taken the necessary steps for procuring the confirmation of a plan prepared by the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's, London, for effecting certain alterations in the chapter statutes and rules relative to the disposal of benefices in the patronage of the chapter, so as to meet the claims of the Minor Canons of that cathedral.

A scheme has been framed for assigning the patronage of the new parish of St. James, Wednesbury, in the county of Stafford and diocese of Lichfield, in consideration of a benefaction towards the augmentation of the endowment of the benefice.

A scheme has been passed for apportioning the revenues of the rectory of Croxton, in the county and diocese of Lincoln, between that benefice and the vicarage of Ulceby, in the same county and diocese.

A schedule was framed of all sales of reversions and purchases of leasehold interests effected during the year preceding the 1st of November last, and also of all cases of refusal, with the special reasons for the same. The Commissioners have continued to effect these sales and purchases on terms generally in accordance with the recommendations made in the year 1851 by the Committee of the House of Lords on Church Leaseholds, and the negotiations have, with very few exceptions, been promptly arranged. It is satisfactory to remark that although the lessees in the north of England were at first more disposed than others to object to the terms of enfranchisement offered by the Commissioners, no less than fifty of the one hundred and eight cases of enfranchisement reported last year arose in the counties of Cumberland and York, and that of those now reported a larger proportion will be found to belong to the same district.

Since the date up to which their last report was made, the Commissioners have received from the Church Estates Commissioners, in respect of the surplus arising from transactions under the provisions of the Episcopal and Capitular Estates Management Acts, an additional sum of 200,000*l.*, a moiety of that amount being the sum already referred to in the notes appended to that report. The total amount which has now accrued to the common fund from this source is 300,000*l.*

The Commissioners explained in their sixth report the circumstances which had required them, under the authority of Parliament, to undertake, about the year 1843, permanent annual charges far beyond the amount of the income of the common fund at that time, and which, with a view to the permanent security of such fund, had for some years compelled them to limit their grants, except in a very few special cases, to the recognition of local claims upon tithes vested in them. They have now the satisfaction of stating that in the course of the current year such income will begin to exceed the expenditure so as to give a balance, small at first, but gradually increasing, which will be applicable towards making better provision for the cure of souls.

Numerous augmentations have been made to benefices since the last report.

The total number of benefices permanently augmented by the Commissioners, exclusive of new districts mentioned below, amounted on the 1st November last to 859, with an aggregate population of 2,364,620, and the annual grants payable by the Commissioners in respect of those benefices, exclusive of the value of land and tithe rent-charge annexed in certain cases, amounted in the aggregate to the annual sum of 46,427*l.* in perpetuity.

Five districts have been constituted under the Church Endowment Act, 6 & 7 Vict., c. 37, since the date up to which the last report was made, the

endowments for two of them having been the gift of private individuals, and those of the remaining three having been provided by the Commissioners in consideration of local claims upon tithes vested in them in possession, and arising within the parishes from which such districts were respectively taken.

The total number of districts constituted by the Commissioners up to the 1st of November last amounted to 247, and their aggregate population to 862,752; and of those districts 202 have been already provided with churches, and have so become "new parishes" under the 15th section of the Act, and the incumbents thereof respectively thus entitled to an annual income of not less than 150*l.*, besides surplice fees and dues arising within their respective parishes. The annual payment by the Commissioners in respect of districts and new parishes is accordingly increased to 34,513*l.*, and is subject to further increase from time to time as new churches are consecrated.

The total permanent charges upon "The Common Fund" for augmentation and endowment of parochial cures amounts, therefore, at present, to the sum of 80,940*l.* per annum, exclusive of the 18,000*l.* per annum payable to the Governors of Queen Anne's Bounty, under the arrangement for the endowment of additional cures described in the sixth report above referred to.

In continuation of the statements contained in former reports relating to the endowment of the University of Durham under the provisions of the Act 3 & 4 Vict., c. 113, the Commissioners have to report that certain estates which have become vested in them in right of the Fifth Canonry in the Cathedral Church of Durham, have been transferred to the University in lieu of a portion of the annual money payment to which it was entitled out of the common fund.

The Commissioners have received from the Bishop of Durham, during the year to which this report relates, a further sum of 3,766*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* on account of the "Maltby Fund," which, added to his lordship's previous contributions, makes a total amount received of 21,275*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*

The abstract of accounts for the year preceding the 1st November, 1855, shows the following items:—the receipts consisted of balance on hand 141,337*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.*; of episcopal and capitular revenues, estates vested in Commissioners, &c. 176,675*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*; estates sold by Church Estate Commissioners, 382,596*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.* Total, 700,649*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.* Payments in respect of income for augmented sees, livings, &c., 179,281*l.* 13*s.* 1*d.*; estates purchased, 404,354*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; and a balance in cash at the Bank of England on the 31st October, 1855, of 117,013*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* Total, 700,649*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*

The Commissioners had also on hand Government securities in Three per Cent. Consolidated Bank Annuities, 189,377*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; Three per Cent. Reduced Bank Annuities, 44,222*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*; New Three per Cent. Bank Annuities, 173*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.*; Exchequer Bills deposited at the Bank of England, 17,400*l.*; mortgages, 3,830*l.*

No. XXXVIII.—ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSION.

Further Minutes of Evidence taken before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Ecclesiastical Commission, &c.

THE witnesses examined were Messrs. W. Paynter, Magistrate for Middlesex and Surrey; Edmund J. Smith; Simon Dunning; John Aubrey Whitcombe, Chapter Clerk of Gloucester; Richard Hall, Surveyor; Charles Pidcock, Solicitor; Henry Workman; the Rev. John Griffiths; Robinson Latter; Thomas Beachcroft, Secretary to the Church Building Commission; William Brodrick; Robert Baxter; Luttrell Lewin Clark; the Right Hon. Spencer Horatio Walpole, M.P.; the Rev. Clement Moody; James J. Chalk; Charles Pott; and Herbert Sturmy.

The following points are extracted from the body of evidence:—

ENFRANCHISEMENT OF HOUSE PROPERTY.

For the enfranchisement of farms and tithe rent-charges, certain recommendations have been laid down by the House of Lords, but no recommendations have been laid down in reference to the enfranchisement of house property; the consequence is, that whatever extravagant demand may be made upon the lessees of house property for the enfranchisement, unless that demand is acceded to, the threat is made of having the leases run out. Mr. Paynter pointed out a remedy for such an evil. The Church is entitled to the reversion, and the lessee to the lease; the question to be decided is, what sum ought to be given by the lessee for the reversion, in order that house property may be enfranchised with advantage to both parties. To meet this, the lessee ought to give the value of the fee-simple, deducting the value of the lease.

The method proposed by Mr. Paynter is the following:—First, calculate the value of the fee-simple of the house property sought to be enfranchised according to the rate at which the fee-simple of similar property sells in the neighbourhood, or in other words, according to the market value. Hence the number of years' purchase (of the annual value of the property let on a repairing lease) for the fee-simple would be determined, and consequently the rate of interest obtained by the purchaser. Of the particular house property, the market value is mentioned in order to ascertain the fee-simple as the starting point, because, in reference to house property, the value of it varies according to the particular locality. The fee-simple of a house in one place is vastly different from the fee-simple of a house in another, and therefore the value of the fee-simple in the particular locality should be ascertained. When that is ascertained, you ascertain, in fact, the number of years' purchase at the fair annual value which the house is worth, and that indicates the particular rate of interest which the purchaser has in reference to the particular thing. Then it is proposed to calculate the

value of the lease at the same rate of interest, and on the same annual value of the property, as in the case of the fee-simple. If a person has a lease of 30 years, and you wish to ascertain what the value of the reversion is, you calculate the fee of the house according to the market value in the particular locality, and then, by the same rate of interest, and upon the same annual value, you calculate the lease, and by subtracting one from the other you get the value of the reversion. Those two would constitute the value of the fee if you went into the market. That is the plan of the enfranchisement. But then he made the following proposal. He would recommend also, in order to facilitate the enfranchisement of this kind of property, as it might not be convenient in some cases for the lessees to pay down the principal sum, or the whole of it, for the enfranchisement, to give them the option of having such principal sum, or part thereof, commuted into an equivalent yearly rent-charge on the property, with a power to redeem the rent-charge on the same terms at a subsequent period, but that such yearly rent-charge shall in no case exceed in amount one-fourth of the clear annual value of the property. That is merely as a facility. It might be inconvenient to a lessee to pay the money at once, and he proposed as a mode of facilitating the enfranchisement to give him that power to be able to redeem at a particular time. He recommended also, that if any difference of opinion arises between the parties as to the market value of the fee-simple of house property in any particular locality, or the clear annual value, the same shall be determined by arbitration, in the same way as by the 17th and 18th Vict., c. 116. These directions are given, that if there is a difference of opinion as to the value of the fee-simple, or the value of the clear annual rental, either of those two particular points, which are the material elements of calculation, shall be decided by arbitration. It is intended that leases, whether for lives or years, where the equivalent term or the term is reduced below 21 years, should have the benefit of one more renewal for seven years on payment of the same rate of fine as heretofore before the enfranchisement, as recommended by the Lords' Report in 1851. If the lease should have so run out as to be below 21 years, the Committee of the House of Lords recommended in reference to other property that seven years should be added by way of renewal before the enfranchisement took place. Therefore he merely adopted that recommendation with reference to this class of property. It will be seen that these suggestions with reference to the enfranchisement of house property go upon precisely the principle, which he held to be the only just principle in regard to enfranchisement, namely, to calculate the value of the fee and of the lease according to the same rate of interest. If you do that, you do injustice to no party; you subtract one from the other; and the consequence is, that when you have got your enfranchisement, and have the fee of the property, you can go into the market and sell the fee without loss, the price given for the enfranchisement, together with the value of the lease, being equal to the value of the fee.

The plan adopted by the Church Estate Commissioners is as follows :—

“ We will calculate the value of the fee-simple of the house as if it were in possession, making all allowances for the particular contingencies which affect house property. We will take the value, say, of a house of 100*l.* a year, at 16½ years' purchase, which is the ordinary value of good household property. Then we will calculate that as the value of the fee of the house, taking into consideration all the risks and all the chances in reference to that species of property. And having calculated the whole risks and saved the tenant from all kinds of hazard in reference to this particular property, we say that, in order to ascertain the value of the reversion, we must consider the particular sum at which we have calculated the value of the fee in possession as a sum payable at the end of the term ; and then, if we discount that sum by 4 per cent., we shall get the present value of the particular reversion.”

The difference between these two modes of enfranchisement is calculated as follows by Mr. Ansell, the Actuary of the Atlas Fire Office :—Assuming the average duration of leases for lives and years held under the Church throughout the country to be fairly represented by a term of 24 years, and that the average value of the fee-simple of house property held under the Church is 16½ years' purchase, and that the total value of the fee-simple of such house property amounts to 6,000,000*l.*, being one-sixth of 36,000,000*l.* estimated as the value of the fee-simple of the whole of the Church property in the kingdom ; if the lessees should have the whole amount of their house property enfranchised by the second plan, the loss they would sustain would be as follows :—“ If interest be computed at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum in estimating the reversions, the loss to the lessees on these assumptions would be about 858,858*l.* ; and computing interest at 4½ per cent., the loss would be about 604,349*l.*” Therefore, if you were to go into the market, having enfranchised according to the terms which the Church Estates Commissioners propose, if the whole property were valued by this scheme, that would be the amount of the actual sum which would be given beyond what would be the sum for which you could sell the property.

Mr. E. J. Smith showed, by a series of calculations, some inaccuracies in Mr. Paynter's theories.

Further evidence was given on the administration of Church property in Gloucester, Worcester, &c.

Mr. Thomas Beachcroft gave particulars respecting the constitution of the Church Building Commission, which was composed of the following members :—The Archbishop of Canterbury for the time being, the Archbishop of York for the time being, the Bishop of London for the time being, the Bishop of Winchester for the time being, the Bishop of Lincoln for the time being, the Bishop of Lichfield for the time being, the Bishop of Chester for the time being, the Bishop of Ripon for the time being, the Archdeacons of London and Middlesex for the time being, the Deans of St.

Paul's and Westminster for the time being, the Principal of King's College for the time being, the Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, the Lord President of the Council, the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Secretary of State for the Home Department, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the First Commissioner of the Treasury, the First Commissioner of Woods and Forests, the Master of the Faculties, the Dean of the Arches, the Judge of the Consistory Court, all for the time being; Henry, Bishop of Worcester; Thomas, Bishop of Ely; Archdeacon Harrison, the Earl of Harrowby, and the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone; the same comprising 29 Commissioners, of whom 11 are Ministers of State or Judges, leaving 18 as attending members.

With reference to a better sub-division of parishes, the Church Building Commissioners are the only body having sufficient powers. In making the different divisions of parishes, it is an advantage to keep up and distinguish titles of the different descriptions of districts which are formed under the Church Building Acts, such as consolidated chapelries, district chapelries, district parishes, and particular districts. The advantage is the arrangement of the patronage.

Mr. William Brodrick gave particulars of the state of the parish of Whitby. The population of the parish is upwards of 15,000; it extends along the coast about eight miles, and inwardly about three miles. There are three churches in Whitby, but two new churches have been lately built, wholly unendowed. The archbishop is the impropiator of the tithes, and they have been held under lease for 21 years, renewed commonly every seven years. The tithes are commuted, and the commuted tithe-rent is 2,800*l.* per annum. Yet the parish church, with two additional churches in the town, has an income from all sources of 161*l.*, so that there are three churches to be served, and a population of 10,000 to be spiritually instructed, upon an income of 161*l.*, including the fees. The gross rent-charges are 2,800*l.* a year; but yet by the system of leasing established in the parish, the church, including the archbishop, has not derived more than 500*l.* a year.

In the appendix, a communication is inserted from Lord John Russell to the Archbishop of Canterbury, relating to the augmentation of benefices. He gave some illustrations of the want of churches in different localities, as cited by the Ecclesiastical Commissioners as follows:—"In London and its suburbs they state there are four parishes or districts having an aggregate population of 166,000 persons, with church room for 8,200, and 11 clergymen; 20 others, with a population of 739,000, with church room for 66,155; and 45 clergymen, or one for 16,000 persons. In 34 parishes, with a population of 1,137,000, there was only church room for 101,682. Allowing one church for 3,000 persons, 379 churches would be required, whereas there were only with proprietary chapels about 100, while there were only 139 clergymen in a population exceeding 1,000,000.

“In the diocese of Chester there were 38 parishes or districts, each with a population exceeding 10,000; and in the aggregate 816,000, with church room for 97,700. In the diocese of York 20 parishes or districts, with a population exceeding 10,000, each with a similar want of church room. In the diocese of Lichfield and Coventry 16 parishes or districts, each having a population exceeding 10,000, with a similar result.

“The evils which flow from this deficiency in the means of religious instruction and pastoral superintendence greatly outweigh all other inconveniences resulting from any defects or anomalies in our ecclesiastical institutions, and it unfortunately happens that while these evils are the most urgent of all, and most require the application of an effectual remedy, they are precisely those for which a remedy can be least easily found.

“The resources which the Established Church possesses, and which can properly be made available for that purpose in whatever way they may be husbanded or distributed, are evidently quite inadequate to the exigency of the case, and all that we can hope to do is gradually to diminish the intensity of the evil.”

Lord John Russell further stated his opinion as to the working of the Commission in the following terms:—

“The result is, then, that instead of turning their attention whole and undivided to the evils which they had themselves pointed out—which they declared to outweigh all other evils, and to demand an immediate remedy—the Commissioners have been scattering their funds in dribblets, and while they relieved poor clergymen by charitable alms, have wasted resources which might have been made available for a great and paramount purpose.

“Let me add, that the evil thus pointed out by the Commissioners of Inquiry attracted the notice of the House of Commons. Lord Shaftesbury, ever zealous and indefatigable, proposed an address to the Crown to consider of the subdivision of parishes exceeding 4,000 in population.

“The Ministers of the Crown agreed to the address, and a Commission was appointed.

“An Act of last session is the fruit of their labours. But the most important of their proposals were objected to, and have fallen to the ground.

“Still, therefore, the evil which the Ecclesiastical Commissioners deplored in 1836, and for which the House of Commons sought a remedy in 1836, remains in great, though somewhat abated, force.”

Upon the receipt of this communication the Ecclesiastical Commission agreed to a minute answering the different objections set forth by Lord John Russell, describing the facts and circumstances connected with the administration of the funds committed to them.

No. XXXIX.—OXFORD UNIVERSITY.

Return^d to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 8th July, 1856, for Copies of Orders in Council referring to a Committee of the Privy Council certain Regulations and Ordinances of Exeter, Lincoln, and Corpus Christi Colleges, Oxford, in amendment of their respective Statutes; and of any Petitions, or Memorials, or Correspondence, which have been referred to the said Committee. (Sir John Pakington.) (356.)

IN consequence of the Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 81, making provision for the good government and extension of the University of Oxford, and of the colleges therein, the colleges of Exeter, Lincoln, and Corpus Christi, have embodied in one set of regulations and ordinances the whole code of laws by which it is proposed that they should in future be governed. Against these regulations objections were made, and the following petitions were presented to the Privy Council:—

From James Heywood, Esq., M.P., F.R.S., from the Executive Committee of the Association for the Reform of Educational Establishments; the Trustees of Dr. Williams' Library; Rev. Mark Pattison, B.D.; Charles Neate, Esq.; and Henry Edward Moberly, Esq., Oxford. A letter upon the subject was also presented to the Privy Council from one of the Secretaries to the Oxford University Commission. Mr. Heywood submitted certain alterations to be adopted in the Exeter, Lincoln, and Corpus Christi College statutes, embodying more especially, That ecclesiastical tests and restrictions of birth and place of education should be removed from scholarships and fellowships; that the visitor should not be allowed to deprive a fellow of his fellowship for contradicting the Christian faith of the Church of England; and that a special dispensation be permitted from attendance at the Liturgical Services of the Church of England in the case of students who are not members of that Church; that college oaths be abolished; that conformity to the Sacraments of the Church of England be not required from the fellows.

The Educational Endowment Reform Association having pointed out various exclusive regulations still in force in Exeter, Lincoln, and Corpus Christi Colleges, Oxford, asked a committee of the Privy Council to revise the statutes of such colleges, so as to bring the regulations and ordinances of those ancient institutions into harmony with the manifest spirit of the Legislature in the Oxford University Act of 1854. Other petitions followed, one of which, from a large number of members of the University, was to the effect that the disregard of the eleemosynary character impressed almost universally by their founders on the several foundations would not in their opinion increase the efficiency of colleges as places of education and learning.

The Rectors and Fellows of Exeter and Lincoln College made some observations on Mr. Heywood's petition and allegations as to tests, and defended existing regulations. Copies are also inserted of an Order in Council, dated 24th June, 1856, approving a report of a Committee of

Council, and certain ordinances and regulations in amendment of the statutes of Exeter College, Oxford. The same with respect to the statutes of Lincoln and Corpus Christi Colleges.

No. XL.—BIBLES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 23rd May, 1856, for A Return of the Moneys paid or allowed during the years 1854 and 1855, respectively, for Drawback on Duty on Paper used for printing Bibles, Testaments, and Prayer Books of the Churches established in England and Scotland. (Mr. Ingram.) (289.)

THE amount paid for drawback on paper used in printing Bibles, &c., in 1854-55, was—England, 9,958*l.* 11*s.* 2½*d.*; Scotland, 2,088*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.* In 1855-56—England, 9,094*l.* 17*s.* 4½*d.*; Scotland, 1,209*l.* 3*s.* 1½*d.*

No. XLI.—TITHES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 5th June, 1856, for Return of all Tithes commuted and apportioned under the Act 6 & 7 Will. IV., c. 71, from the 31st of December, 1847, to the 31st December, 1855, distinguishing between those assigned to Clerical Appropriators and their Lessees, Parochial Incumbents, Lay Impropriators, and Schools and Colleges. (Mr. Massey.) (293.)

THE total amount of rent charges payable to clerical appropriators and lessees was, 678,345*l.* 11*s.* 1½*d.*; payable to parochial incumbents, 2,410,506*l.* 7*s.* 6½*d.*; to lay impropriators, 765,427*l.* 5*s.* 4½*d.*; to schools, colleges, &c., 195,948*l.* 5*s.* 11½*d.*; total, 4,050,227*l.* 10*s.* 0½*d.*

No. XLII.—EDUCATION.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 15th Feb., 1856, for Return of the Names of the Six Schools in Great Britain, which have received the largest amount of Capitation Money, and of the Six Schools which have received the smallest amount, for the year ending December, 1855. (Mr. Alcock.) (61.)

THE six schools which have received the largest amount of capitation money, in 1855, were all National Schools. The Habbergham All Saints, received 44*l.* 4*s.*; population, 2,138. Barnard Castle, 39*l.* 16*s.*; population, 4,608. Bollington, 39*l.* 5*s.*; population, 4,665. Acton, 37*l.* 6*s.*; population, 3,165. Crewe, 34*l.* 18*s.*; population, 4,491. Highgate, St. Michael's, 33*l.* 9*s.*; population, 4,502.

The six schools which received the smallest amount were all National, except the last, which was Roman Catholic. The Tarporley, 10*s.*; population, 2,632. Neswick, 15*s.*; population, 469. Brabourne, 16*s.*; population, 816. Smalley, 18*s.*; population, 1,090. Castleford, 1*l.*; population, 2,581. Chipping, Roman Catholic, 1*l.*; population, 1,625.

No. XLIII.—EDUCATION (IRELAND).

Annual Report of the Commissioners of Education in Ireland for the year 1855-6. (291.)

[*Pursuant to Act of Parliament 93 Geo. III., c. 107.*]

SOME alterations have been made in the course of studies for the candidates at the competitive examinations for the exhibitions or royal scholarship founded in Trinity College. The Commissioners referred to the expenses incurred in the repairs of some royal schools, and to the want of funds for granting well-deserved superannuation allowances.

No. XLIV.—MUSEUM OF PRACTICAL GEOLOGY.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 21st May, 1856, for Copy of Correspondence between the Director-General of the Geological Survey and the President of the Board of Trade. (Mr. William Williams.) (248.)

IN a letter to Lord Stanley of Alderley, dated 25th January, 1856, Sir Roderick I. Murchison, recalled, under the circumstance of the removal of the Department of Science and Art from under the control of the Board of Trade to the control of the Committee of Privy Council for Education, the benefit derived from the department of Geological Survey of the United Kingdom, and the School of Mines. The survey, which is the base of the whole establishment, has its analogue in most civilized lands, and the country void of it must remain ignorant of that knowledge of the crust of the earth which is indispensable in every effort to promote the material interests of man. Considerable stimulus would be given to those schools of mines if no one of the 12 inspectors of coal mines, each receiving a salary of 400*l.* per annum, were appointed, except he had undergone the preliminary studies which such an institution affords. At present, nearly 100 officers of her Majesty's or the Honourable East India Company's services have spontaneously taken advantage of such scientific instruction, and 600 working men attend the courses of evening lectures delivered gratuitously by the professors. The letter further showed the importance and advantage of the establishment in aiding the development of mineral wealth, &c. Dr. Lyon Playfair answered on the part of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, stating that the institution in question, notwithstanding the transfer from the control of that board, will receive the same amount of support under the new arrangement as heretofore, and that any minister entrusted by her Majesty with the charge of education will anxiously endeavour to promote and to give fuller development to the instruction afforded by the professors of the school.

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72 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

No. XLV.—SCHOOLS IN RURAL DISTRICTS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 4th March, 1856, for Return of the Number of Schools which have been erected under the Minute of Her Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council of Education, of the 2nd day of April, 1853, for promoting Voluntary Assessments towards the expense of building Schools in Rural Districts. (Mr. Miles.) (97.)

FROM the 20th August, the date of giving effect to the minute, to 31st December, 1853, no payments were made. From the 1st January, 1854, to the 3rd March, 1856, there were made payments to 164 schools. The return is confined to schools erected, exclusive of schools enlarged or improved.

No. XLVL.—CHURCH LEASEHOLDS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 24th April, 1856, for Return of the Number of Leaseholds in the several Dioceses of England and Wales, in respect of which Applications have been made for the purchase of the Reversion, or for the sale of the Term, or for both in part, &c., in continuation of Parliamentary Paper, No. 375, Session 1854. (Mr. Ingram.) (399.)

	Number of Leaseholds in respect of which applications have been made by the Lessee			Number of Applications in which			
	For the Purchase of the Reversion.	For the Sale of the Term.	For the Purchase of the Reversion in part, and for the Sale of the Term in part.	Terms have been agreed upon and referred to the Church Estate Commissioners.	Declined by the Lessee after the Terms were stated.	Declined by the Lessor or under similar circumstances	Number remaining under consideration.
Diocese of—							
Canterbury . . .	3	6	None.	2	1	1	5
York . . .	117	24	149	167	4	4	51
Chester . . .	6	...	2	6	1	—	—
Durham . . .	53	9	—	—	—
Gloucester and Bristol . . .	9	4	5	...	3
Lincoln . . .	16	1	None.	—	5	3	2
London . . .	8	2	None.	6	None.	None.	4
Norwich . . .	64	2	11	37	20	None.	20
Peterborough . . .	18	11	6	32	3
Ripon . . .	19	13	...	21	1	2	8
Salisbury . . .	8	3	1	4	...	3	4
Worcester . . .	448	24	7	385	12	4	78
Dean and Chapter of—							
Durham . . .	152	...	1	68	2	1	81
Gloucester . . .	23	1	...	13	2	7	—
Llandaff . . .	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Paul's . . .	1	None.	1	2	None.	None.	None.
Norwich . . .	12	2	None.	1	3	1	9
Rochester . . .	4	4	—
Wells . . .	7	7	—
Worcester	1	13	5	2	8

No. LL.—SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence between Great Britain and Brazil, respecting the Slave Trade.

[*Presented to the House of Lords by command of Her Majesty, in pursuance of their Address, dated July 21, 1856.*]

THIS correspondence between the Earl of Clarendon and Consul Cowper and Mr. Jerningham, commencing the 18th January, 1856, contains remonstrances of the British Government against the slave trade still carried on in Pernambuco, and especially against a slave trade transaction at Serinhaem. On the 7th March Mr. Jerningham sent a note to Senhor Paranhos, to the effect that if the Brazilian Government do not use their utmost efforts in prosecuting with all the rigour of the law, and in punishing all such as have been engaged in slave trade transactions, the British Government will be obliged again to put in force the provisions of the Act of Parliament of the year 1845; and that while British cruisers will exercise on the coast, in the rivers, and in the harbours of Brazil that watchfulness and activity which the agents and officers of the Brazilian Government neglect to use, British courts of justice will pronounce those sentences of condemnation from which Brazilian courts may be found to shrink. Mr. Jerningham reminded also the Brazilian Government, that by the treaty of the 23rd November, 1826, they stand deeply pledged for the total abolition of the slave trade. Senhor Paranhos, sent a note in answer, showing that there was no intention on the part of the Brazilian Government not to prosecute vigorously those implicated in stealing Africans in Serinhaem; but that in consequence of the epidemic which had lately invaded that province, and the ravages it had committed, there arose a necessary delay, and the proceedings of the police authorities were embarrassed. Senhor Paranhos referred to the menace of the British Government to enforce the bill of August, 1845; that bill he said would excite and provoke odious collisions, but would be completely useless towards ensuring the extinction of the slave trade.

On the 11th April, 1856, Consul Cowper, in a letter from Pernambuco, informed the Earl of Clarendon of the particulars of a conversation he had with the President, from which he came to the conclusion: 1st. That the President, in order to provide for the security of the slave vessel, and in order to screen this criminal adventure, which was undertaken by friends of his, took care beforehand to remove the public authorities from the district of Serinhaem. 2nd. That he purposely contrived that the preliminary process of legal inquiry as to the facts of the case should be conducted at Rio Formoso, a place distant six leagues from the spot where the slaves were landed, instead of having it held at the Barra, at which place, and not at Rio Formoso, persons were to be found who could identify the men who carried away the slaves. 3rd. That in order to suppress the evidence of the only eye-witnesses of the crime by making them the accused parties, he included in the process of accusation Dr. Antonio Drummond and all the other captors of the slaver.

Charges were then transmitted by the Earl of Clarendon to Mr. Jerningham, desiring him to communicate them to the Brazilian Government, and suggesting that the President and the chief of the police of Pernambuco should be dismissed, and that Dr. Antonio Drummond and the other captors of the slaver should either be immediately brought to trial or be liberated. On the 12th of May Mr. Jerningham informed Lord Clarendon that M. Macedo was appointed to succeed the former President of Pernambuco, and on the 18th June a memorandum was communicated to the Earl of Clarendon by M. Moreira in answer to the note of the 7th March, explaining all the steps taken by the Brazilian Government with reference to the affair of Serinhaem, and complaining of the distrust manifested by the British Government, which of itself neutralizes the action of the Brazilian Government. Further correspondence thereupon issued, but the specific charges were never sufficiently refuted; and although the chief of police of Pernambuco was dismissed, and the captors of the Serinhaem slave vessels were prisoners, the chief culprit was still at large, and 29 Africans still in slavery.

No. LII.—SALTED PROVISIONS (NAVY).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 19th February, 1856, for Returns relating to Salted Provisions for the Navy. (Mr. Fagan.) (162.)

IN October, 1854, the Commissioners of the Admiralty advertised for 24,000 tierces and 12,000 barrels of beef, and for 36,000 tierces and 20,000 barrels of pork. The tenders for the same were for 39,350 tierces and 7,980 barrels of beef, and 46,300 tierces and 21,750 barrels of pork. In December, 1854, the Admiralty advertised for 8,000 tierces and 3,000 barrels of beef, and 16,000 tierces and 6,000 barrels of pork; and there were tendered 26,250 tierces and 5,750 barrels of beef, and 35,300 tierces and 21,730 barrels of pork. In February, 1855, the Admiralty advertised for 6,000 tierces and 600 barrels of beef, and for 1,000 tierces of pork; and there were tendered 23,500 tierces and 1,600 barrels of beef, and 10,700 barrels of pork. The same were to be delivered at Deptford, Gosport, Plymouth, and Haulbowline. A large quantity of beef and pork was rejected for bad quality.

No. LIII.—ARMY PRIZE MONEY.

The Account of unclaimed Army Prize Money, from 18th January, 1809, to 31st December, 1855. (395.)

[Directed to be annually laid before the Houses of Parliament by the Act 2 Will. IV. c. 53.]

THE receipts arising from forfeited and unclaimed shares of prize money, grants, &c., were 1,388,250*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*, and the payments 1,420,147*l.* 9*s.* 8½*d.*, leaving a balance of 31,896*l.* 13*s.* 6½*d.*; but there was held 57,102*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.* in the Three per Cent. Consols.

No. LIV.—TRANSPORTS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 10th April, 1856, for Return of Ships engaged as Regular Transports between 1st January, 1855, and 1st April, 1856, inclusive, showing their engagement, their register tonnage, rates of freight, mulct or deductions, and why made; and in steam ships, the horse-power, the time occupied in their passage, and, where information has been received, the quantity of coals or fuel consumed per hour. (Mr. William Lindsay.) (345.)

THE return gives particulars of 245 vessels chartered for Constantinople, Marseilles, Genoa, Balaklava, Gibraltar, &c., &c. The mulct or deductions amounted to 182,475*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.*

 No. LV.—MILITARY AID TO CIVIL POWER.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 12th March, 1856, for

Return of all Applications which have been made to the Secretary of State for the Home Department for a Military Force in aid of the Civil Power in England and Wales in each of the last ten years; of cases in which the Military Authorities have reported that a Military Force has been so employed, and of cases in which a Military Force has been so employed without previous application. (Mr. Drummond.) (126.)

MILITARY aid was applied for in 1846, in February, at Derby and Penrith, and in May at Bangor. In 1847, in May, at Salisbury, Taunton, Nether Stowey, Bridgewater, and Wellington; and in July, at Oldham. In 1848, in January, at Dudley and Cardigan. In February, at Cardigan. In March, at Birmingham, Bath, and Liverpool. In April, in Dudley, Liverpool, Nottingham, Newark, Leeds, Barnsley, Birmingham, Nottingham, Brecon, and Bradford. In May, at Bradford, Bingley, and Leicester. In June, at Sheffield and Bolton. In August, at Ashton-under-Lyne, Rochdale, and Doncaster. In September, at Morpeth. In 1849, military aid was employed in February at Derby, in April at Ely, and in August at Morpeth. In 1850, in March at Aberdare, in July at Holywell, and in December at Birkenhead. In 1851, in January at King's Lynn, in February at Barham, Ipswich, and Great Yarmouth, and in March at Berwell and Newmarket. In 1852, in February at Derby, in April at Burlington, and in July at Macclesfield. In 1853, in July at Kidderminster, and in November at Blackburn and Wigan. In 1854, in January at Exeter, in April at Stockport, in August at Northampton, in September at Kidderminster, and in October at Frome. In 1855, in February at Liverpool, in March at Wolverhampton, and in April at Birmingham.

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No. LVI.—MILITIA.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 13th March, 1856, for A Return of the Number of Men in each Regiment of Militia who refused to be re-attested under the Circular from the War Department, dated 27th March, 1855. (Colonel Gilpin.) (303.)

THE number of men who refused to be re-attested in all the regiments was 14,710.

No. LVII.—MILITIA ESTIMATES.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to prepare Militia Estimates for the year ending 31st March, 1857. (297.)

THE estimate of the charge of the disembodied militia from 1st April, 1856, to 31st March, 1857, 365 days, was 228,950*l.* for 18,088 men. The estimate for one day, 60*l.* 11*s.* 5½*d.* regular militia, and 1*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* for local militia.

No. LVIII.—MILITARY SAVINGS' BANKS.

Account of the Amount due by the Public to Depositors in Military Savings Banks on the 31st March, 1854, &c., pursuant to Act. (81.)

THE amount due by the public on the 31st March, 1854, to cavalry and infantry, was 117,956*l.* 2*s.* 0½*d.*; to Royal Artillery and Sappers and Miners, 30,103*l.* 6*s.* 2½*d.*; total, 148,059*l.* 8*s.* 3¼*d.* The number of depositors, cavalry and infantry, was 8,557; Royal Artillery, &c., 1,757. The amount of the fund for military savings banks, up to the date of this account (29th February, 1856), irrespective of dividends received after 8th January, 1855, was 172,147*l.* 7*s.* 5¼*d.*

No. LIX.—DISEMBODIED MILITIA.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 10th March, 1856, for A Return of the Amount of Pay and Allowances for the Training and Exercise of each Regiment of Disembodied Militia during the year 1855, and the period for which each corps was assembled for the above duties in the course of that year. (Sir William Jolliffe.) (150.)

THE total amount of pay and allowances was 10,379*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.* for thirteen regiments.

No. XCV.—BULLION, &c.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 23rd July, 1856, for Account of the Notes, Securities, Bullion, &c., of the Bank of England, as published weekly in the Gazette; the Quarterly Averages of the Weekly Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England; the Monthly Average Aggregate Amount of Promissory Notes, payable to Bearer on Demand, in Circulation in the United Kingdom; and the Minimum Rate of Interest at the Bank of England on the 1st of each month, in the years 1852, 1853, 1854, and 1855, and first six months of 1856:—Also, Return of the Weekly Average Prices of Wheat, Barley, Oats, Rye, Beans, and Peas per quarter, from July 1853 to August 1856; and the Number of Quarters of Wheat and Wheat Flour, &c., imported into Great Britain, in each month, from January, 1853, to June, 1856. (Mr. Newdegate.) (410.)

THE accounts are from the 17th March, 1855, to the 19th July, 1856. In the Issue Department, the amount of notes issued was highest in the week ending 16th June, 1855, when it was 31,350,395*l.*, and lowest in the week ending 28th April, 1856, 23,556,675*l.* The Government debt was throughout the period, 11,015,000*l.* Other securities, 2,984,900*l.* to the 8th December, and 3,459,000*l.* after that date. The amount of gold coin and bullion was highest on the 23rd June, 1855, 17,429,435*l.*, and lowest on the 10th May, 1856, 9,158,820*l.* In the banking department, the proprietors' capital was 14,553,000*l.* The rest was 3,644,317*l.* on the 17th March, 1855, and 3,347,600*l.* on the 19th July, 1856. Public deposits, 5,077,843*l.* on the week ending 17th March, 1855, and 3,242,869*l.* on that ending 19th July, 1856. Other deposits, 11,155,862*l.* on the 17th March, 1855, and 11,902,473*l.* on the 19th July, 1856. Seven days and other bills, 891,692*l.* on the 17th March, 1855, and 849,451*l.* on the 19th July, 1856. Government securities, 11,583,888*l.* on the 17th March, 1855, and 14,798,464*l.* on the 19th July, 1856. Other securities, 14,521,596*l.* week ending 17th March, 1855, and 13,153,664*l.* 19th July, 1856. Notes, 8,495,965*l.* 17th March, 1855, and 5,321,300*l.* 19th July, 1856. Gold and silver coin, 721,268*l.* 17th March, 1855, and 621,825*l.* 19th July, 1856. Total, 35,322,714*l.* week ending 17th March, 1855, and 33,895,253*l.* 19th July, 1856.

The weekly liabilities and assets of the Bank were as follows:—In the quarter ending 3rd September, 1853. Notes in circulation, 24,561,000*l.* Deposits, 16,312,000*l.* Total liabilities, 40,873,000*l.* Securities, 26,322,000*l.* Bullion, 17,813,000*l.* Total assets, 44,135,000*l.* In the quarter ending 12th July, 1856, the notes in circulation were, 20,570,000*l.* Deposits, 14,782,000*l.* Total liabilities, 35,352,000*l.* Securities, 27,416,000*l.* Bullion, 111,666,000*l.* Total assets, 38,582,000*l.*

The monthly average aggregate amount of promissory notes, payable to bearer on demand, in circulation in the United Kingdom on the four weeks ending 5th July, 1856, was as follows:—Bank of England, 20,295,000*l.* ;

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private banks, England, 3,740,825*l*.; joint stock banks, England, 3,035,094*l*.; total, 6,775,919*l*. Scotland: chartered, private, and joint stock banks, 4,133,110*l*. Ireland: Bank of Ireland, 4,147,925*l*.; private and joint stock banks, 3,031,229*l*.; total, 37,383,183*l*.

The minimum rate of interest at the Bank of England on the 1st of January, 1852, was 3 per cent.; from February to April, 2½ per cent.; from May, 1852, to January, 1853, 2 per cent.; from February to June, 1853, 3 per cent.; in July and August, 1853, 3½ per cent.; in September, 4 per cent.; from October, 1853, to May, 1854, 5 per cent.; from June to August, 5½ per cent.; from September, 1854, to April, 1855, 5 per cent.; in May, 4½ per cent.; June, 4 per cent.; July to September, 3½ per cent.; in October, 5 per cent.; from November, 1855, to May, 1856, 6 per cent.; for bills of 60 days and under, 7 per cent.; for bills above 60 to 95 days, in June, 1856, 5 per cent.

The weekly average price per imperial quarter of wheat, on the 2nd July, 1853, was 47*s*. 3*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 76*s*. 2*d*.; January, 1855, 74*s*. 3*d*.; January, 1856, 76*s*. 10*d*.; 2nd August, 1856, 77*s*. 10*d*. Barley, 2nd July, 1853, 29*s*. 10*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 41*s*. 3*d*.; 6th January, 1855, 34*s*. 5*d*.; 5th January, 1856, 39*s*.; 2nd August, 1856, 41*s*. 8*d*. Oats, 2nd July, 1853, 20*s*. 6*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 25*s*. 5*d*.; 6th January, 1855, 27*s*. 5*d*.; 5th January, 1856, 26*s*. 9*d*.; 2nd August, 1856, 27*s*. 9*d*. Rye, 2nd July, 1853, 32*s*. 6*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 49*s*. 8*d*.; 6th January, 1855, 48*s*. 4*d*.; 5th January, 1856, 52*s*. 7*d*.; 2nd August, 1856, 48*s*. 4*d*. Beans, 2nd July, 1853, 40*s*. 1*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 46*s*. 11*d*.; 6th January, 1855, 46*s*. 11*d*.; 5th January, 1856, 47*s*. 6*d*.; 2nd August, 1856, 45*s*. 7*d*. Peas, 2nd July, 1853, 35*s*. 10*d*.; 7th January, 1854, 50*s*. 2*d*.; 6th January, 1855, 45*s*. 3*d*.; 5th January, 1856, 47*s*. 3*d*.; 2nd August, 1856, 43*s*. 8*d*.

In 1853 there were imported into Great Britain of wheat and wheaten flour, 5,420,267 quarters. In 1854 there were imported 4,114,144 quarters; in 1855, 2,949,369 quarters; and from January to June, 1856, 1,596,302 quarters. Of barley and barley meal there were imported in 1853, 907,726 quarters; in 1854, 605,344 quarters; in 1855, 375,932 quarters; and from January to June, 1856, 191,056 quarters. Of oats and oatmeal in 1853, 2,071,401 quarters; in 1854, 2,833,407 quarters; in 1855, 2,998,714 quarters; January to June, 1856, 1,306,849 quarters. Of rye and rye meal in 1853, 51,134 quarters; in 1854, 4,180 quarters; in 1855, 3,148 quarters; January to June, 1856, 367 quarters. Of peas in 1853, 103,150 quarters; in 1854, 111,165 quarters; in 1855, 114,978 quarters; January to June, 1856, 22,500 quarters. Of beans and bean meal in 1853, 370,673 quarters; in 1854, 408,513 quarters; in 1855, 368,870 quarters; January to June, 1856, 251,355 quarters. Of Indian corn and meal in 1853, 420,183 quarters; in 1854, 1,021,153 quarters; in 1855, 692,444 quarters; January to June, 1856, 598,503 quarters. Of malt in 1853, 11,998 quarters; in 1854, 9,182 quarters; in 1855, 4,954 quarters;

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January to June, 1856, 3,547 quarters. There were also imported some small quantities in each year of buckwheat and bere or bigg.

No. XCVI.—COINAGE.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 31st January, 1856, for An Account of all Gold, Silver, and Copper Moneys of the Realm, coined at the Mint for each year from the 1st day of January to the 31st day of December, 1855, &c. (Mr. Wilson.) (365.)

IN 1846, the gold coinage amounted to 4,334,911*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*; in 1847, 5,158,440*l.*; in 1848, 2,451,999*l.* 10*s.* 1*d.*; in 1849, 2,177,955*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.*; in 1850, 1,490,836*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*; in 1851, 4,400,411*l.* 4*s.* 9*d.*; in 1852, 8,742,270*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*; in 1853, 11,952,391*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.*; in 1854, 4,152,183*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*; in 1855, 9,008,663*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* Total, 1846 to 1855, 53,871,063*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.* The total number of sovereigns was 48,577,357; of half sovereigns, 10,587,402.

The total value of silver coined in 1846, 559,548*l.*; in 1847, 125,730*l.*; in 1848, 35,442*l.*; in 1849, 119,592*l.*; in 1850, 129,096*l.*; in 1851, 87,868*l.* 6*s.*; in 1852, 189,596*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.*; in 1853, 701,544*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.*; in 1854, 140,480*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.*; in 1855, 195,510*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* Total, from 1846 to 1855, 2,284,409*l.* The real cost or value of the metal was, 2,214,151*l.* 15*s.* 9*d.* There were coined during this period, 216,682 crowns; 2,744,981 half-crowns; 6,731,292 florins; 14,357,066 shillings; 14,559,663 sixpences; 5,064,714 groats; 41,580 fourpences; 3,530,861 threepences; 308,880 twopences; and 78,408 pence.

The total value of copper coined in 1846 was 6,496*l.*; in 1847, 8,960*l.*; in 1848, 2,688*l.*; in 1849, 1,792*l.*; in 1850, 448*l.*; in 1851, 3,584*l.*; in 1852, 3,796*l.* 16*s.*; in 1853, 9,072*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.*; in 1854, 60,866*l.* 8*s.*; in 1855, 41,091*l.* 7*s.* 10½*d.* Total, 1846 to 1855, 138,795*l.* 8*s.* 7½*d.* The purchase value of copper was, 69,303*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.* There were coined, 14,891,520 pence; 24,156,381 halfpence; 22,548,564 farthings; and 5,632,416 half-farthings. From 1846 to 1855, there were purchased, 2,013,025,213 ozs. weight of worn silver coinage, value 621,550*l.* The Mint value, at 5*s.* 6*d.* per oz., 553,581*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.* Loss by re-coinage, 67,968*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*

No. XCVII.—REVENUES, &c. (IRELAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 9th May, 1856, for Accounts of Revenue and Expenditure, Duties of Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Postage, showing Quantities retained for Home Consumption, Exported, &c. (Sir Robert Ferguson.) (381.)

IN the year ended 31st December, 1855, the net produce of the revenue of Ireland was 6,056,272*l.* 5*s.*, viz. customs, 1,919,108*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*; excise,

2,308,125*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.*; stamps, 441,300*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.*; property and income tax, 1,049,808*l.*; post-office, 26,000*l.*; small branches of the hereditary revenue, 300*l.*; miscellaneous, 311,629*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* There were retained for home consumption in Ireland in the year ended 31st December, 1855, 550,169 gallons of wine, 139,084 gallons of foreign spirits, 6,221,856 gallons home-made spirits, 4,808,354 lbs. tobacco, 8,485,135 lbs. tea, 830,230 lbs. coffee, 411,692 cwts. sugar, 145,032 bushels flax seed, 52,232 loads timber not sawn or split, and 57,266 loads timber sawn or split. There were exported in the year to foreign ports 14 horses, 292 cwts. bacon and ham, 7,943 barrels beef and pork, 17,475 cwt. butter, 1,617 quarters wheat and flour, 15,742 quarters oats and oatmeal, 66,053 yards linen manufactures, 360,780 yards cotton manufactures. To Great Britain, 214,636 oxen and bulls, 8,162 calves, 489,494 sheep, 254,054 swine, 170,121 quarters wheat, and 1,964,655 quarters oats and oatmeal. The amount of stamp duties collected in Dublin was 336,907*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.*; Antrim, 30,412*l.* 12*s.* 11½*d.*; Cork, 20,003*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.*; Limerick and Clare, 7,253*l.* 3*s.* 11*d.*; Londonderry, 6,341*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.*, &c. &c. The amount of postage collected in Dublin was 57,611*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*; Cork, 20,083*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*; Antrim, 18,875*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.*; Limerick, 8,633*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.*, &c. &c.

No. XCVIII.—NAVAL AND MILITARY ACCOUNTS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 9th May, 1856, for Copies of Reports, and Treasury Minutes relating to the Audit of Naval and Military Accounts. (The Chancellor of the Exchequer.) (160.)

THESE papers contain a Treasury minute of the 4th February, 1840, appointing a Committee, consisting of Mr. Larpent (Audit Board), Mr. Brooksbank (Treasury), and Mr. Croomes (War Office), to inquire into the system of accounts and audit at the War Office, with a view to ascertain whether it would be advisable that the army accounts should be submitted to the same system of record and appropriation audit as the naval accounts. That Committee, on the 21st July, 1840, recommended that the War-office accounts should be kept upon the principle of double entry; and that the annual account for Parliament should be examined as to the appropriation of the grants by the Audit Board. A Treasury minute was made in consequence, on the 27th November, 1840, directing the suggestions of the Committee to be carried into effect, and appointing Mr. Anderson to assist in the application of the double entry system to those accounts. On the 3rd December, 1841, the Committee was reconstituted by the addition of Sir William Herries, and the withdrawal of Mr. Larpent and Mr. Croomes, and they were directed to extend their inquiries to the Ordnance. Subsequently, on the 13th January, 1846, a

Treasury minute directed the Army, Navy, and Ordnance departments to adopt one uniform principle of estimating for the moneys required for the annual service of those departments, and to apply the same in strict conformity with the votes of Parliament. On the 24th February, 1852, a Treasury minute was made directing the adoption of an uniform principle in the appropriation of the grants for extraordinary military expenditure.

No. XCIX.—SUGAR.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 11th July, 1856, for Return of the Quantities of Unrefined and Refined Sugar, of Molasses, and Rum, imported and cleared for consumption in each year ending 5th July, from 1842 to 1856; Amount of Duty received on the same in each year; and Average Price per cwt. of Muscovado and of Havannah Sugars during the same period. (Mr. Wilson.) (396.)

In the year ended 5th July, 1842, there were imported, of unrefined sugar, 4,462,591 cwts.; of which 2,149,853 cwts. were from the West Indies; 721,403 from the Mauritius; and 1,029,426 cwts. from the East Indies. Total of the produce of British possessions, 3,900,682 cwts.; foreign produce, 561,909 cwts. In the year ended 30th June, 1856, there were imported 7,776,129 cwts. sugar, of which 5,522,839 cwts. were the produce of British possessions, and 2,253,290 cwt. foreign produce. Of refined sugar, in the year ended 5th July, 1842, the imports were 16,051 cwts.; year ended 30th June, 1856, 408,397 cwts. The quantity of unrefined sugar entered for home consumption in 1852 was 4,160,606 cwts.; of which 4,160,311 cwts. were from the British possessions, and 295 cwts. foreign. In 1856, 7,141,735 cwts.; of which 5,249,228 cwts. were from the British possessions, and 1,892,507 cwts. foreign.

Of molasses, the quantity imported in 1842 was 436,008 cwts.; and in 1856, 907,171 cwts. The aggregate quantity of sugar and molasses imported was, in 1842, 4,623,978 cwts.; in 1856, 8,486,916 cwts. Of rum, there were imported, in 1842, 3,909,027 galls., including over proof, of which 3,827,159 galls. were of British possessions, and 81,868 galls. foreign; and, in 1856, 9,085,957 galls., of which 8,229,505 galls. were of British possessions, and 856,452 foreign. The quantity of rum entered for home consumption in 1842 was 2,205,304 galls.; and, in 1856, 3,217,970 galls.

The amount of duty received on unrefined sugar in the year ended 5th July, 1842, was 5,243,370*l*.; of which 5,242,394*l*. was from sugar of British possessions, and 976*l*. from foreign. In 1856, 5,106,574*l*.; of which 3,752,746*l*. from sugar of British possessions, and 1,353,828*l*. from foreign sugar. The duty on refined sugar and sugar candy in 1852, was 76*l*.; and, in 1856, 310,756*l*. In molasses, in 1842, 241,567*l*.; and, in

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1856, 218,737*l*. Aggregate sugar and molasses in 1842, 5,485,013*l*.; and, in 1856, 5,636,007*l*. The rate of duty in 1842 and 1843 on unrefined sugar of British possessions was 1*l*. 5*s*. 2½*d*.; on foreign, 3*l*. 6*s*. 1½*d*. In 1844, from the 10th November, the same rate on sugar of British possessions, and 1*l*. 15*s*. 8½*d*. on foreign sugar, not of slave labour; and 3*l*. 6*s*. 1½*d*. other foreign sugar. In 1845, from 14th March, British possessions, 16*s*. 4*d*. equal to white clayed, 14*s*. not equal to white clayed; 1*l*. 8*s*. foreign, equal to white clayed, 1*l*. 3*s*. 4*d*. not equal to white clayed, and not of slave labour, and 3*l*. 3*s*. other foreign. In 1846, from 18th August, same rate on sugar of British possessions, and 1*l*. 4*s*. 6*d*. 1*l*. 1*s*., and 2*l*. 2*s*., respectively, for foreign. In 1847, from 5th July, same on sugar of British Possessions, and 1*l*. 3*s*. 4*d*., 1*l*. 2*l*. 2*s*., foreign. Further reductions were made in 1848 to 1856. At the last date, the rates were of all sorts of whatever growth and whencesoever imported; equal to white clayed, 17*s*. 6*d*.; not equal to white clayed, 15*s*.; not equal to brown clayed, 13*s*. 9*d*.; refined sugar, 1*l*.; molasses, 5*s*. 4*d*.

The amount of duty received on rum in the year ended 5th July, 1842, was 1,029,186*l*.; and, in 1856, 1,305,772*l*. The rate of duty in 1842 was, on rum, of British possessions, 9*s*. 4*d*.; on foreign, 1*l*. 2*s*. 10*d*.; in 1856, on rum of British possessions in Great Britain, 8*s*. 2*d*.; Ireland, 6*s*. 4*d*.; foreign produce, 15*s*. The average price of Muscovado sugar from the "London Gazette" in 1842, British West Indies, 37*s*.; 1856, 28*s*. 3*d*.; Mauritius, 1843, 33*s*. 10*d*.; 1856, 27*s*. 6*d*.; East Indies, 1843, 32*s*. 8*d*.; 1856, 30*s*. 5*d*.; Havannah sugar, 1842, 19*s*. 7*d*.; 1856, 30*s*. 1*d*.

No. C.—EXPORTS.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 12th June, 1856, for

Return of the Value of the Total Exports of the United Kingdom and the United States in the year 1855; also of the Value of the Exports from the United Kingdom to the United States, and from the United States to the United Kingdom in the year 1855. (Mr. Alcock.) (295.)

THE total exports of the United Kingdom in 1855 amounted to 116,701,045*l*., exclusive of specie and bullion. The total exports from the United States in the year ending 30th June, 1855, 57,324,343*l*., including 11,718,196*l*. of specie and bullion. The total exports from the United Kingdom to the United States in 1855, 18,064,673*l*., exclusive of specie and bullion, 15 per cent. of total exports. The total exports from the United States to the United Kingdom in the year ending 30th June, 1855, 29,081,847*l*., including 9,970,419*l*. of specie and bullion, 50 per cent. of total exports.

No. CI.—NATIONAL DEBT.

Account of the Gross Amount of all Bank Annuities and Long Annuities transferred, and Money paid to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, &c., and Expenses incurred. (169.)

[Presented pursuant to Act of Parliament.]

From the 6th August, 1817, to the 20th November, 1855, 72,689,404*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* were received from savings banks and friendly societies; and 36,238,363*l.* 2*s.* were paid to the same. The gross amount standing in the names of the Commissioners was—in Stock, 29,773,454*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.*; in Exchequer Bills, 3,121,000*l.*; Exchequer Bonds, 1,765,000*l.* The sum paid for the purchase of such stock, &c., was 33,273,743*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* The gross amount of interest or dividends received thereon, 25,111,544*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*; and of interest paid and credited to savings banks and friendly societies, 28,073,749*l.* 17*s.* The charges of management may have amounted to 5,733*l.* during the year.

Within the year ending 5th January, 1856, there were transferred and paid to the Commissioners in different annuities, 249,628*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*; and money paid, including commission, 505,189*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* The annuities granted amounted to 68,358*l.* 15*s.* immediate, and 1,110*l.* 16*s.* deferred. On account of the fund for the military savings banks there were received by the Commissioners from 19th September, 1845, to 5th January, 1856, 216,668*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.* The stock bought and transferred was 242,048*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* The sums paid, 216,668*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*

No. CII.—NATIONAL DEBT.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 26th June, 1856, for Return of the Amount of the National Debt existing on the 31st March, 1856, specifying the description of Stock, the Interest payable on each description, the Reduction or Increase of Interest payable, with the causes of such reduction or increase; and showing the Amount of Stock created or redeemed; also Account of Stock cancelled in exchange for Terminable Annuities in each year from 1809 to 1856. (Mr. Ricardo.) (416.)

THE National Debt on the 31st March, 1856, was 775,312,694*l.*, bearing an annual interest of 23,267,361*l.* In the year ending 31st March, 1856, a reduction of interest took place of 37,236*l.*; but on account of stock created there was also an increase of interest of 747,243*l.* The debt created in the year was 24,908,134*l.*, and the debt redeemed, 1,241,257*l.* The capital stock cancelled from the 1st September, 1808, to 31st March, 1856, amounted to 50,391,074*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.* The Long Annuities cancelled, 165,889*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.*; annuities of different amounts were granted each year, in exchange for perpetual and other annuities, transferred to the Commissioners for lives and terms of years.

No. CIII.—SUPPLY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 9th June, 1856, for Account of the Sums voted in Supply during the years 1854 and 1855, under the several heads of Army, Navy, Ordnance, and Miscellaneous Services; and Abstract of Grants for Miscellaneous Services for 1854 and 1855. (Mr. Wilson.) (274.)

THE sum voted for the army services, in 1854, was 8,810,059*l.*; in 1855, 18,789,532*l.* Navy, 1854, 12,874,505*l.*; in 1855, 21,394,216*l.* Ordnance, 1854, 4,583,701*l.*; in 1855, 10,647,103*l.* Vote of credit for war with Russia, 3,000,000*l.* both years. Civil services, 6,464,122*l.* in 1854; 6,690,462*l.* in 1855. Revenue department, in 1854, 4,052,803*l.*, and 4,385,951*l.*, in 1855. Total, 1854, 39,785,190*l.*, and 1855, 64,307,264*l.*

No. CIV.—TRADE AND MANUFACTURES (SCOTLAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 1st February, 1855, for Return of the Income and Expenditure of the Board for the Encouragement of Trade and Manufactures in Scotland, for the years 1843 to 1854. (Mr. Archibald Hastie.) (120.)

THE annual receipt and expenditure for the Board is from 4,000*l.* to 5,000*l.*, the receipts proceeding from annuities settled by Act of Parliament, dividends, rent, &c. The expenditure, consisting of salaries, compensations, purchases of examples of works of art, &c. From 1849 to 1855 the amount received for the building of the National Gallery, Edinburgh, was 39,266*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*, and the amount expended 38,243*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.*

No. CV.—AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS (SCOTLAND).

Copy of Report of the Highland and Agricultural Society of Scotland for 1855, and Copy of Supplementary Report.

[Presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's Command.]

THE number of occupants in Scotland in 1855 was 43,467; the acreage under tillage 3,530,068 acres, viz.: 191,300½ in wheat, 186,082 barley, 933,662½ oats, 3,692 rye, 17,263½ bere, 37,308½ beans, 5,456 peas, and 15,038½ vetches, 449,404½ turnips, 146,969½ potatoes, 2,299 mangold, 1,191 carrots, 1,209½ cabbage, 3,461 flax, 1,998½ turnip seed, 1,223 any other crop, 22,462 acres bare fallow, and 1,510,044½ grass and hay under rotation. There were in Scotland 121,190 horses for agricultural purposes above 3 years old, 32,100 for the same purpose under 3 years old, 23,939

all other horses, 298,463 milk cows, 469,309 other cattle, 207,044 calves, 2,707,950 sheep of all ages for breeding, 1,138,521 sheep of all ages for feeding; lambs' produce of 1855, 1,848,429; swine, 134,350; total stock, 6,901,295 in 1855, against 6,043,384 in 1854.

The estimate of gross produce was 5,063,074 bushels wheat, 6,092,679 bushels barley, 30,081,351 bushels oats, 556,957 bushels bere, 1,183,647 bushels beans and peas, 6,461,988 tons turnips, and 732,170 tons potatoes. The average acreable produce per county varies in wheat from 22 bushels in Dumfries to 34 bushels in Sutherland; barley from 27 bushels in Perth to 46 bushels in Haddington; oats from 26 bushels in Inverness to 45 bushels in Haddington.

No. CVL.—BRITISH FISHERIES.

Report of the Commissioners of British Fisheries for the year ended 31st December, 1855.

[*Presented in Pursuance to Acts.*]

The returns of the herring fishery for 1855 show both an important and a prosperous trade. A great quantity of fish has been taken with few interruptions or casualties, whilst the prices to all classes engaged have been remunerative. In 1855 the gross cure of herrings was 766,703½ barrels, against 636,562½ in 1854. Of this vast cure there have been branded 280,581½ barrels, or more than a third of the whole quantity. The exports to the Continent are on the increase; and, in 1855, there were exported 344,029 barrels, against 237,893 in 1854.

The total quantity of herrings cured during 1855 was 766,703½ barrels, the total quantity branded 280,581½ barrels, and the total quantity exported 442,264 barrels; being an increase over the preceding year of 130,141½ barrels in the quantity cured, of 68,737½ barrels in the quantity branded, and of 80,567½ barrels in the quantity exported; and the number of barrels of herrings assorted after the Dutch mode, and branded accordingly, was 224,782 "full," and 640 "maties;" being an increase over the preceding year of 47,094 "full," and 283 "maties." The account of the herrings caught, but not cured, shows that the quantity in 1855 amounted to 130,759 barrels or crans, being an increase over the preceding year of 26,970 barrels or crans; and, when this account is added to the account of herrings cured, the total produce of the herring fisheries for 1855 amounts to 897,462½ barrels, being an increase over the preceding year of 157,111½ barrels or crans.

In the cod and ling department the returns show that in the year 1855, 113,561½ cwts. were cured dried, and 6,316½ barrels cured in pickle, and that the total quantity exported was 29,154½ cwts. cured dried, and 25 barrels cured in pickle, being an increase in 1855 as compared with 1854

of 3,877 cwts. and 150 barrels in the quantity cured, and of 9,597 cwts. and 25 barrels in the quantity exported. The total quantity of cod and ling caught, but not cured, amounts to 63,539 cwts., being an increase over the preceding year of 5,497 cwts.; and, when added to the quantity cured, makes the produce of the cod and ling fisheries for 1855 to be 177,100 cwts. and 6,316½ barrels, being an increase over the preceding year of 9,373¾ cwts. and 150 barrels.

In 1855, 11,747 boats, manned by 41,602 fishermen and boys, were employed in the shore curing department of the fisheries, and the total number of persons engaged in the fisheries was 94,155, being an increase over the preceding year of 856 boats, of 1,243 fishermen, and of 26,321 persons in the total number of persons employed.

The number of square yards of netting employed in 1855 in the fisheries amounted to 80,031,507, being an increase upon the preceding year of 2,820,936 square yards. The number of yards of lines amounted to 34,023,034, being an increase of 3,503,370 yards. And the total value of boats, nets, and lines, amounted to 618,484, being an increase in value of 31,064*l*.

The exports of herrings to the Continent were distributed as follows:—14,147 barrels to Königsberg, 59,204½ barrels to Dantzic, 160,572½ barrels to Stettin, 26,774½ barrels to Hamburg, 60,377 barrels to Harburg, 6,754 barrels to Bremen, 7,955 barrels to Rotterdam for the Rhine, and 8,244 to other continental ports; total exported, 344,029 barrels. The report is dated, Board of Fisheries, Edinburgh, 2nd June, 1856, and signed by the Commissioners.

NO. CVII.—BOARD OF FISHERIES (SCOTLAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 26th Feb., 1856, for

Copy of the Report or Reports addressed to the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury in or since the year 1848, by Mr. J. G. Shaw Lefevre, on the Subject of the Fishery Board in Scotland (Mr. George Duff), and Copies of any Treasury Minute or Minutes since 1854, relative to the Board of Fisheries in Scotland, and of all Correspondence, since 1854, with the Lords of the Treasury relative to the same Subject. (Mr. Edward Ellice.) (43.)

MR. J. G. SHAW LEFEVRE, having been deputed by the Treasury to investigate the expenditure conducted under the superintendence of the Fishery Board at Edinburgh, in order to ascertain how far each part of it is productive of public advantage; and whether any, and, if any, what alterations are called for by the change of circumstances since the present system was first established, reported on the 24th Jan. 1849, as follows:—First, with regard to the branding of herrings, in so far as the home trade

is concerned, there is no adequate grounds for supporting it; but, as respects the foreign trade, which is sufficiently large to be an object of the highest importance to Scotland, the branding system forms so essential a part of its arrangements, that its abandonment might cause much loss and inconvenience. It is suggested, however, to charge a small fee or duty upon the branding of each barrel, so as to throw a portion of the expense of the establishment upon those who immediately benefit by it. Mr. Lefevre suggested that the system of punching and branding cod may be discontinued, subject to the necessary precautions.

On the 17th April, 1849, the Board of Fisheries at Edinburgh reported on the suggestions of Mr. Lefevre, consenting to discontinue the branding of the cod and ling fisheries; and making observations on the expense of the establishment, and also on the naval superintendence exercised by the Board.

Mr. J. G. Lefevre, in another letter dated 9th July, 1849, made some suggestions as to the possibility of diminishing the establishment of fishery officers, recommending that the commissioners of fisheries should apply the whole of the annual sum of 3,000*l.* to piers and harbours, instead of applying, as heretofore, 500*l.* (part thereof) in the repair of fishermen's boats. Accordingly, on the 4th December, 1849, a Treasury minute was made, sanctioning the several measures recommended by the commissioners, and approved by Mr. Lefevre.

On the 18th December, 1855, a Treasury minute was made, in consequence of observations made in the House of Commons at the time of taking the votes in supply, in which, after recapitulating the historical facts connected with the constitution of the Board, which causes on the whole an annual expense of 14,000*l.* a year, the Treasury proposed to abolish the system of branding herrings for exportation, and in consequence abolish the establishment. In answer to this minute, the Board of Fisheries made a statement, dated 10th January, 1856, adducing reasons why such a measure in their opinion would prove most injurious to the fisheries of Scotland, and to the whole of the fishing trade and fishermen engaged therein. The capital engaged in the trade is not less than 2,730,000*l.* In boats, netting, lines, &c., alone, the value of the capital employed is estimated at above 580,000*l.*, the property, and in many cases the only property of the poor fishermen, and the fisheries, while engaging more than 10,000 boats, and about 38,000 men, in the actual occupation of fishing, give direct employment altogether to upwards of 65,000 persons, who may be held as intimately associated with the maritime concerns of the country. They showed the comparative progress of the fishery from 1848 to 1855, the quantity branded being 151,179 barrels in 1840, and 280,270 barrels in 1855; and the quantity cured, 503,729 barrels in 1840, and 705,209 barrels in 1855, and explained the principal duties performed by the Board of Fisheries, and the benefits which have been derived by the country from the fisheries being under their management.

No. CVIII.—FISHERY HARBOURS (IRELAND AND SCOTLAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 14th April, 1856, for Return of all Sums of Money advanced on Public Account since January, 1846, for building, adding to, or otherwise improving and maintaining Fishery Harbours in Ireland; and similar Returns relative to Scotland. (Mr. Edward Ellice.) (185.)

THE sums paid for maintaining fishery harbours in Ireland from 1846 to 14th April, 1856, was 72,200*l.*, viz., 1846, *nil*; 1847, 10,000*l.*; 1848, 21,500*l.*; 1849, 15,500*l.*; 1850, 16,500*l.*; 1851, 3,700*l.*; 1852, *nil*; 1853, to 1855, 1,000*l.* each year; 1856, to 14th April, 2,000*l.*

For fishery harbours in Scotland, the sum advanced was 2,500*l.* in 1846, 1847, and 1848; 5,500*l.* in 1849 and 1850; and 3,000*l.* from 1851 to 1855 inclusive; or 33,500*l.* from 1846 to 1855 inclusive.

No. CIX.—FISHERY BOARD (SCOTLAND).

*Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 9th June, 1856, for Return in detail of the several Sums included in Vote No. 8 Civil Contingencies, relative to the Fishery Board in Scotland, viz., to the Commander of "Princess Royal" Cutter, 200*l.*; to the Commander of Her Majesty's Steam Vessel "Jackal," 100*l.*; to Marine Department, 1,800*l.* (Sir George Brooke Pechell.) (290.)*

BESIDES the 100*l.* and 200*l.* named as salaries to the commanders of the *Jackal* and *Princess Royal*, 700*l.* were paid for wages to mate, petty officers, and crew of cutter, 700*l.* for victualling, piloting, and incidental expenses, 300*l.* for repairs, rigging, and store, and 100*l.* for expense of detached hired boats crews.

No. CX.—HORSES AND CARRIAGES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 5th June, 1856, for Return of the Number of Horses and Carriages paying Taxes in each County in England, for 1854.

THE total number of carriages with four wheels paying taxes was 65,497; of carriages with two wheels, 127,383; of horses of all sizes, 432,746; the total amount of assessment, 544,795*l.*; less composition duty for horses and carriages, 37,458*l.*; total, 582,253*l.* In Middlesex, there were 6,424 carriages with four wheels, 2,577 carriages with two wheels, and 23,880 horses, paying 35,130*l.* In York, there were 4,459 carriages with four wheels, 11,157 with two wheels, and 40,473 horses, paying 46,682*l.* In Lancaster, 3,156 carriages with four wheels, 6,035 with two wheels, and 26,871 horses, paying 30,216*l.*, &c.

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Return to an Order of the Hon. the House of Commons, dated 3rd Feb., 1857, for

An Account of the Gross Public Income of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in the year ended the 30th day of September, 1856, and of the actual Issues or Payments within the same Period, exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c. (Mr. Hayter.) (1.)

INCOME.		TOTAL.		EXPENDITURE.					
		£	s. d.		£	s. d.		£	s. d.
CUSTOMS - -	-	23,093,300	14 8	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt	23,533,007	8 3			
EXCISE - - -	-	17,861,777	13 2	Unclaimed Dividends paid	99,567	8 10			
STAMPS - - -	-	7,180,041	0 9	Terminable Annuities -	3,947,039	1 5			
TAXES (Land and Assessed) - -	-	3,100,026	0 11	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1854 - - -	227,500	0 0			
PROPERTY TAX -	-	15,940,330	7 10	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Supply - - -	794,112	1 1			
POST OFFICE - -	-	2,768,152	5 10	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Deficiency - - -	24,291	11 3			
CROWN LANDS (net)		283,857	1 6				28,625,517	10 10	
PRODUCE of the SALE of OLD STORES, and other extra receipts -		504,175	14 0	CHARGES ON CONSOLIDATED FUND:					
MONEY received from the E. I. C.		60,000	0 0	Civil List - - -	400,692	10 0			
MISCELLANEOUS RECEIPTS, including imprest and other Moneys - -		473,459	14 4	Annuities and Pensions -	338,842	10 8			
UNCLAIMED DIVIDENDS received -		82,945	13 10	Salaries and Allowances -	161,102	19 6			
	£	71,348,066	6 10	Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions - - -	147,538	13 4			
EXCESS of Expenditure over Income in the year ended 30th Sept. 1856.		16,959,411	9 6	Courts of Justice - -	516,569	19 6			
	£	88,307,477	16 4	Miscellaneous Charges on the Consolidated Fund	185,574	14 6			
							1,750,321	7 6	
				SUPPLY SERVICES:					
				Army, including Ordnance	28,094,824	19 8			
				Navy - - -	17,608,995	1 5			
				Vote of Credit (additional Expenses, War with Russia) - - -	1,410,000	0 0			
				Miscellaneous Civil Services - - -	6,693,172	14 4			
				Salaries, &c. of Revenue Departments - -	4,124,646	2 7			
							57,931,638	18 0	
							£ 88,307,477	16 4	

An Account of the Balances of the Public Money remaining in the Exchequer on the 30th day of September, 1855; the Amount of Money raised by the Additions to the Funded or Unfunded Debt in the year ended the 30th day of September, 1856; the Money applied towards the Redemption of the Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt; the total Amount of Advances and Repayments on account of Local Works, &c., with the Difference accruing thereon, and the Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th day of September, 1856.

	£	s.	d.	ISSUED :	£	s.	d.
BALANCES in the EXCHEQUER on the 30th September 1855	6,761,470	11	10	To the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, to be applied to the redemption of the Public Debt, per Act 10 Geo. 4, c. 27. Interest on donations and bequests. Redemption of hereditary pensions -	233,361	16	6
MONEY raised in the year ended 30th September 1856 ;				To the Bank of England for receiving the loan of 16,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 18. To the Bank of England for receiving the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 6. To the Bank of England for receiv- ing the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 21. To the Bank of England for managing the funding of Exchequer Bills, per Act 19 Vict. c. 25 - - - -	11,000	0	0
FUNDED DEBT :				To the Paymaster General in Exchequer Bills to exchange supply bills. To the Pay- master-General in money out of ways and means grants, to pay off supply bills. To the Paymaster- General in money to be applied to the purchase of Exchequer Bills, under the Act for funding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> Total issues on account of unfunded debt in the year ended 30th September 1856	21,551,100	0	0
Money paid into the Exche- quer on account of the loan of 16,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 18. Amount retained by the Bank for receiving the loan, being at the rate of 300 <i>l.</i> per million. Money paid into the Exchequer on account of the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 6. Money paid into the Exchequer on account of the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 21. Money paid into the Exchequer towards funding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> Exche- quer Bills, per Act 19 Vict. c. 5 - - - -	14,797,986	8	0	Premium on Exchequer Bills subscribed towards funding of 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> and discount on bills purchased, carried to revenue - - - -	2,186	8	0
EXCHEQUER BONDS :				Advances for local works, &c., under various Acts of Par- liament, including loan to Sardinia, 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> Less repayments of ditto - -	729,404	0	4
Received for 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> of bonds, raised per Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 130 (in part of 7,000,000 <i>l.</i>), granted for Ex- chequer Bonds and Exche- quer Bills - - - -	977,750	0	0	Excess of expenditure over income, in the year ended 30th September 1856 - -	16,959,411	9	6
EXCHEQUER BILLS :				Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th September 1856	7,084,743	5	6
In part of grant of 17,183,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 8, and dated in March 1856. In part of grant of 17,183,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 8, and dated in March 1856, and applied in aid of money grants. In part of grant of 7,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 130, and dated in August 1855. In part of Grant of 21,182,700 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 19, and dated in June 1856.	24,034,000	0	0				
£	46,571,206	19	10				

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

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An Account of the Gross Public Income of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in the year ended the 31st day of December, 1856, and of the actual Issues or Payments within the same period, exclusive of the sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c.

INCOME.	TOTAL.	EXPENDITURE.		
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.
CUSTOMS - -	23,618,374 18 3	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt	23,524,477 12 5	
EXCISE - -	18,073,777 13 2	Unclaimed Dividends paid	89,021 15 5	
STAMPS - -	7,268,271 18 4	Terminable Annuities -	3,979,690 15 11	
TAXES (Land and Assessed) - -	3,105,026 0 11	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1854 and 1855 -	245,000 0 0	
PROPERTY TAX -	16,028,421 10 2	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Supply - -	794,112 1 1	
POST OFFICE -	2,869,152 5 10	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Deficiency - -	24,291 11 3	28,656,593 16 1
CROWN LANDS (net)	284,857 1 6	CHARGES ON CONSOLIDATED FUND :		
PRODUCE of the SALE of Old STORES, and other extra receipts -	510,154 13 5	Civil List - -	400,937 10 0	
MONEY received from the E. I. C.	60,000 0 0	Annuities and Pensions -	336,315 13 8	
MISCELLANEOUS RECEIPTS, including Imprest and other Moneys - -	318,006 6 6	Salaries and Allowances -	159,945 9 3	
UNCLAIMED DIVIDENDS (received)	82,945 13 10	Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions - -	150,605 15 3	
	£ 72,218,988 1 11	Courts of Justice - -	508,353 4 4	
		Miscellaneous charges on the Consolidated Fund -	184,321 4 10	1,740,478 17 4
		SUPPLY SERVICES :		
EXCESS of Expenditure over Income in the year ended 31st December 1856 - -	10,104,412 13 0	Army, including Ordnance	24,749,824 19 8	
	£ 82,323,400 14 11	Navy - -	16,013,995 1 5	
		Vote of Credit (additional Expenses, War with Russia) - -	300,000 0 0	
		Miscellaneous Civil Services - -	6,652,143 3 8	
		Salaries, &c., of Revenue Departments - -	4,210,364 16 9	51,926,328 1 6
				£ 82,323,400 14 11

An Account of the Balances of the Public Money remaining in the Exchequer on the 31st day of December, 1855; the Amount of Money raised by the Additions to the Funded or Unfunded Debt in the year ended the 31st day of December, 1856; the Money applied towards the Redemption of the Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt; the Total Amount of Advances and Repayments on account of Local Works, &c., with the difference accruing thereon, and the Balances in the Exchequer on the 31st day of December 1856.

BALANCES in the EXCHEQUER on the 31st December, 1855 - -	£	s.	d.	ISSUED:	£	s.	d.
MONEY raised in the year ended 31st December, 1856.	3,688,600	6	3	To the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, to be applied to the Redemption of the Public Debt, per Act 10 Geo. 4, c. 27. Interest on Donations and Bequests, Redemption of Hereditary Pensions - - - -	324,753	0	5
FUNDED DEBT:				To the Bank of England, for receiving loans and managing the Funding of Exchequer Bills -	6,200	0	0
Money paid into the Exchequer on account of the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 6.				To the Paymaster-General, in Exchequer Bills, to exchange Supply Bills.			
Money paid into the Exchequer on account of the loan of 5,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 21.				To the Paymaster-General, in Money, out of Ways and Means Grants, to pay off Supply Bills.			
Money paid into the Exchequer towards Funding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> Exchequer Bills, per Act 19 Vict. c. 5 - -	10,771,986	8	0	To the Paymaster-General, in Money, to be applied to the purchase of Exchequer Bills, under the Act for Funding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> Total Issues on account of the Unfunded debt in the year to 31st December, 1856 - - - -	21,549,700	0	0
EXCHEQUER BONDS:				Premium on Exchequer Bills subscribed towards Funding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> , and Discount on Bills purchased, carried to Revenue - - - -	2,186	8	0
Received for 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> of Bonds, raised per Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 130 (in part of 7,000,000 <i>l.</i>), granted for Exchequer Bonds and Exchequer Bills - - - -	977,750	0	0	Advances for Local Works, &c., under various Acts of Parliament, including Loan to Sardinia, 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> Less Repayments of ditto - -	742,656	16	10
EXCHEQUER BILLS:				Excess of expenditure over income in the year ended 31st December, 1856 - - - -	10,104,412	13	0
In part of Grant of 17,183,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 8, and dated in March, 1856. In part of Grant of 17,183,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 Vict. c. 8, and dated in March, 1856, and applied in aid of Money Grants.				Balances in the Exchequer on the 31st December, 1856 - -	6,942,427	16	0
In part of Grant of 7,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 18 & 19 Vict. c. 130, and dated in August, 1855.							
In part of Grant of 21,182,700 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 Vict. c. 19, and dated in June, 1856. In part of Grant of 2,000,000 <i>l.</i> , per Act 19 & 20 Vict. c. 44, and dated in December, 1856 - -	24,234,000	0	0				
	£ 39,672,336	14	3		£ 39,672,336	14	3

Treasury Chambers, 3rd February, 1857.

W. G. HAYTER.

No. LVII.—CRIMINAL PROCEDURE.

A Report on Criminal Procedure by Charles Sprengel Greaves, one of Her Majesty's Counsel.

[Presented by command of Her Majesty.]

THE report proposes to consider the defects in criminal procedure and to suggest the means by which they may be remedied. The subjects are treated in the order in which they occur in the usual course of a prosecution.

Of apprehending without a warrant persons committing or attempting to commit offences.—It is suggested that the clause of Lord Campbell's Act for the better prevention of offences, 14 and 15 Vict., c. 19, s. 11, by which any person may apprehend any person who shall be found committing any indictable offence in the night and convey him before a magistrate, be extended and enacted as to all misdemeanours committed in the day time. To prevent offences which are in the course of being committed, such as injuries caused by parents or masters to their children, servants, &c., by a long series of cruel conduct, power should be given to some public officer to interpose and cause the case to be investigated before a magistrate. And in like manner, in case of nuisances affecting the health or safety of the public, it would be well to make it the duty of some public officer to interfere for the purpose of causing their abatement.

Of the duty to apprehend without a warrant persons committing or attempting to commit offences.—As much misapprehension exists on the subject, it would be advisable to pass a declaratory enactment in plain terms, indicating that it was the duty of every person to endeavour to arrest a person committing or attempting to commit high treason or felony; and also to make the duty to apprehend co-extensive in all cases with the right to apprehend persons committing offences, and the omission to do so punishable on summary conviction by a fine not exceeding a certain sum, say 10*l*. It would also be advisable to make any wilful omission to obey the call of a magistrate or peace officer to assist in dispersing or apprehending rioters, &c., punishable by summary conviction as well as by an indictment.

Of apprehending offenders without a warrant after an offence has been committed.—Any person, whether he be a constable or private individual, may apprehend a person who has committed a felony, although he was not present when such felony was committed. Yet there is a marked distinction between a peace officer and a private individual in cases where a person is apprehended upon suspicion of having committed a felony, and it afterwards turns out that there is no evidence that such felony has been committed. This causes a great reluctance to be felt by private individuals to interfere in such matters, and it might be well to abolish the distinction. In cases of misdemeanour, there is no power to arrest a person on suspicion of having committed an offence of that nature after it has been committed.

It would be best to render the more serious misdemeanours felonies, or to give a general power to apprehend, in certain specified cases, after the fact had been committed.

Of inquiries where an offence has been committed, although there be no particular individual charged with the commission of such offence.—Wherever an offence has been committed, except in the case of death, there seems, at present, to be no authority vested in the justices of the peace, or any other, to institute any inquiry for the purpose of detecting the offender, unless there be a charge made against some particular individuals. It should be the duty of a public officer to go to the spot, and institute all necessary inquiries, making memoranda of the evidence each person might be able to give, and such officer should be authorized to require any persons he might think fit to be examined before a magistrate.

Of the course to be adopted where a dangerous wound or injury has been inflicted.—It frequently happens that, when a mortal injury has been inflicted, the party injured lives for a considerable time afterwards, and yet no proper measures are taken to obtain any evidence from him, although the offender might have been apprehended, and might have been brought into his presence, and examined by a magistrate. It would be well to enact that suspected parties should, in such cases, be taken at the earliest opportunity into the presence of the injured party, and the attendance of a magistrate, if possible, procured, and an examination regularly taken; or, if that were not practicable, that the means of identifying the party should be afforded by taking the suspected party into the presence of the injured person.

Of the mode of taking information.—When a charge is made before any justice, it is highly important that the magistrate should himself be *required* to examine the informant, and any other person, on oath, and judge for himself upon the facts deposed to, whether there are grounds for charging any one with the commission of an offence.

The place where a warrant may be executed.—A magistrate's warrant to apprehend any person for any indictable offence may be executed at any place within the county of his jurisdiction; and, to execute it in a different county, it requires to be indorsed, &c. The warrant of a magistrate should run in force throughout every county or district adjoining to that in which it was granted; or, like the warrant of a judge of the Court of Queen's Bench, should run in force all over England. The warrant might be stamped with a stamp provided for that purpose.

Of the mode of proceeding before the committing magistrate in taking the examination of witnesses for the prosecution.—Under the 11 & 12 Vict., c. 42, s. 17, depositions are taken only in those cases where the accused party is either committed or bound over to be tried, so that depositions are not usually taken where the charge is dismissed. It should be enacted, that when any person appears before any justice on a charge of any indictable offence, such justice shall, in the presence of the accused person, administer an oath to each witness in the first instance, and then take his evidence in

writing; and, if the case is dismissed, such deposition shall be returned to the court to which it would have been returned if the case had been sent to trial.

Of examining witnesses in the behalf of accused before the committing magistrates.—Magistrates should be required in all cases to take the examination of the prisoner's witnesses in the same manner as of those for the prosecution, giving the prosecutor the liberty of cross-examining them; and such deposition should be returned with the others. It would also be proper that the magistrate should always ask a prisoner whether he has any witnesses, and inform him that they will be examined for him if he wishes it.

Of the mode in which the evidence of witnesses ought to be taken down before the committing magistrate.—Each question and answer should be reduced into a single proposition as accurately as may be; and as soon as one proposition is so taken down, it should be read to the witness, and he should be asked whether that is what he means to say, or whether he has any alterations to make in it, taking care to see that he understands it before proceeding to the next question.

Of the costs of attending before the committing magistrate, where a case is dismissed, and of the costs of the apprehension of offenders.—It would be right to give a power to the justices to grant costs, although the case was dismissed. The power, however, should be wholly discretionary, so that it might be exercised or not in any case, and as to any or all the witnesses, as cases may occur where a malicious charge is made, and yet witnesses, in support of it, compelled against their wills to attend and give evidence. The magistrates should be required to ascertain and certify the amount of costs in the same manner as where a committal takes place.

Of bailing prisoners.—The power of bailing in cases of manslaughter, which is possessed by justices of the peace, might be extended to coroners, but certainly not to take the single recognisance of the party charged with manslaughter.

Of appointing an attorney to conduct the prosecution.—A prosecutor should be considered entitled, as of right, to appoint his own attorney, unless from his own poverty, or from his relationship to the defendant, or from other circumstances, the magistrates should be of opinion that the prosecution would not be properly conducted; and in such case it should be lawful for them in their discretion either to appoint an attorney or to direct the district officer to appoint one as above mentioned. Wherever an attorney's name appeared on the depositions, or an attorney was employed by the district officer, no other attorney should be allowed any costs for conducting the prosecution, unless he satisfied the Court that there was reasonable ground for his conducting the prosecution instead of such other attorney.

Of the employment of counsel and attorneys.—It is impossible that any case can be properly presented to a court or jury unless there be some one to conduct it, even if there be only evidence on the part of the prosecution,

and still more so if there be witnesses for the defence. And if some person must be employed to conduct the case, it is essential to the regularity of the proceedings that it should be some one practically conversant with legal proceedings; it must, therefore, be the rule that counsel should conduct prosecutions. If that be so, it follows as a necessary consequence that an attorney must be employed in every case also; as it is useless to employ counsel unless his instructions be such as to enable him to be really serviceable in the case.

Of pleading guilty without sending a bill of indictment before the grand jury.—Every criminal court should be empowered to arraign any prisoners upon the bill of indictment before it is sent to the grand jury, and if any prisoner pleads guilty, to sentence him in the same manner as if he had pleaded guilty to a bill found by the grand jury. Each court might on the first day it was held arraign the prisoners, and in all cases where they pleaded guilty, the witnesses might be countermanded or dismissed at once, and thereby the costs now incurred in such cases would be saved. Power of taking pleas of guilty should also be given to the sessions.

Of the grand jury being attended by an officer to watch the examination of the witnesses.—An officer should attend the grand jury with the depositions, whose duty should be to explain the charge in the indictment, or furnish an abstract of it, if necessary; and whilst each witness gives his evidence he should watch the statement he makes, and put any questions which may be necessary to elicit the whole of his testimony. It should also be the duty of such officer to see that the grand jury kept together, and that bills were not ignored when several of them were absent.

Of swearing the witnesses before the grand jury.—Each witness should be sworn before the grand jury, provided that in case any question as to the competency of a witness to understand the nature of an oath should arise, the witness should be taken before the Court and examined as at present in order to determine that question.

Of the bills of indictment which may be presented to a grand jury.—In no case which is, properly speaking, a criminal case, and in which the defendant on conviction is liable to personal punishment, should a person, except the Attorney-General, or a person ordered to prosecute another for perjury under Lord Campbell's Act, 14 & 15 Vict., c. 100, s. 19, be allowed to present any bill of indictment to the grand jury, unless the case has been previously investigated by a justice of the peace, and the defendant committed or bound over to answer the charge contained in the indictment.

Of the place where an offence must be committed in order to give the grand jury jurisdiction to inquire into it.—It would be well to enact that any indictable offence punishable by the law of England, whether committed in England, or on the high seas, or on land abroad, whether within or without the Queen's dominions, may be dealt with, inquired into, or tried in any place in England, reserving to any court the power of directing the trial to take place at any other court at which it may appear conducive to the ends

of justice that it should take place, upon the application either of the prosecutor or prisoner, before the jury is sworn, but not afterwards.

Of indictments.—Some suggestions are here made as to the form of indictments and on several clauses of Lord Campbell's Act, 14 and 15 Vict., c. 100.

Of ordering an indictment to be tried either on the Crown or civil side by a special jury, &c.—There seems no reason why, where a view is desired, or it is wished to have the case tried by a special jury, a judge should not be invested with discretionary power to order the view to be had, the special jury to be struck, and the case tried on the Crown side; or if it should appear to the judge in any such case that it was expedient that the indictment should be tried on the civil side, why such judge should not have power to order the trial to take place on the civil side by a special jury, with a view or in such manner as he should direct.

Of ordering an indictment to be transmitted from the sessions to the assizes, and tried either on the Crown or civil side by a special jury.—A similar power might be given to any judge to order them to be transmitted to the assizes and tried in like manner either on the Crown or on the civil side.

Of giving the judge at Nisi Prius the same powers in case of an indictment ordered to be tried on the civil side, as if it had been removed by certiorari.—When the indictment has been ordered to be tried on the civil side, the judge should be empowered to proceed to trial as in cases removed by certiorari.

Of the form of plea to be taken upon arraignment.—Instead of the form of question to the prisoner, "How say you, are you guilty or not guilty?" it would be better to substitute, "Do you wish to plead guilty, or to make any other plea, or to be tried?"

Of challenging jurymen peremptorily.—There is no sufficient reason for any distinction as to challenges between misdemeanours and felonies as to the right of peremptory challenges.

Of the right of a prisoner to a separate trial.—In every criminal case any defendant should be entitled to a separate trial if he requires it.

Of extending certain provisions of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854, to criminal cases.—The provisions of the Act to be applied to criminal cases are those upon—The addresses to the jury, s. 18. Of the power to adjourn a trial, s. 19. Of affirmation instead of oaths, s. 20. How far a party may discredit his own witness, s. 22. Of the proof of contradictory statements of adverse witnesses, s. 23. Of cross examinations as to previous statement in writing, s. 24. Of cross examining a witness as to his having been convicted of an offence, s. 25. Where an attesting witness need not be called, s. 26. Comparison of disputed handwriting, s. 27.

In what cases the deposition of a witness may be admitted in evidence against a prisoner.—Any deposition of a witness, which had been duly taken in the presence of the prisoner on a criminal charge before a magistrate, should be admissible on the trial of an indictment against such prisoner, although the

charge contained in such indictment might not be the same as the charge made before such magistrate, provided it should appear to the satisfaction of the Court that the facts contained in such deposition, which were relevant to the charge contained in such indictment, were also relevant to the charge made before such magistrate; and that the prisoner had had a full opportunity of cross examining the witness before such magistrate as to all and every such fact.

Of the discharge of juries.—The Court should have authority to discharge a jury in any case where it appeared to the satisfaction of such Court to be conducive to the ends of justice that such jury should be discharged, and to direct that the prisoner should be tried either at the same or at a subsequent assize or sessions by another jury.

Of electing to proceed with one charge and abandon another.—The prosecutor should have the power, before the jury are sworn, to elect which offence he will proceed on.

Of imposing the costs of the prosecution, &c., upon defendants, and the recovery thereof.—In case of conviction the property of the defendant should be made available for the purpose of recovering the expenses which have been occasioned by the prosecution of the offences. The amount of the costs of the prosecution as ascertained by the proper officer should be inserted in the writ, and to them might properly be added the expenses of the maintenance of the prisoner in gaol, which might be ascertained by the certificate of the gaoler.

Of empowering the jury who convict a defendant to award compensation to the party injured by the offence.—Whenever persons possessed of property are convicted of any offence productive of injury to individuals, the party injured may recover the amount of injury sustained; but it is doubtful whether the jury should be empowered to assess the amount of compensation.

Of conveyances and sales of property by prisoners.—A person who has committed an offence should not be permitted to dispose of his property after he has been charged with such offence before a magistrate, and he should be prevented from alienating such property.

Of the costs of prosecutions.—The Secretary of State should employ some of the most experienced clerks of assize, and some of such attorneys, to draw up a scale of costs, such a scale to be framed upon a fair and liberal principle. A discretion, however, should be vested in the proper officer of the court to meet the exigencies of particular cases.

Of poor prisoners' defences.—Some competent persons should be authorized to investigate the case of any poor prisoner, and if they saw reasonable ground for believing that such prisoner had a defence which ought to be presented to the Court, to direct an attorney to prepare such defence, and the Court might in such case be required to assist counsel for the prisoner.

Of the costs of defendants.—The costs of witnesses for the defendant in any case where a defence was directed might be left to the discretion of the

Court. Whenever, after a conviction, it should be clearly shown that a prisoner was innocent, he should not only receive all the costs which he has incurred in his defence and in procuring his pardon, but also adequate compensation for the sufferings he has endured whilst undergoing his sentence.

Of the taxation of the bills of costs of attorneys of prisoners.—In every case the Court, on the application of a defendant or any of his friends, who may have employed an attorney to defend him, should be empowered to refer such attorney's bill for taxation, either to some officer of the court or to some attorney, and that authority should be given to the Court which ordered the taxation, or to any subsequent sessions of that Court, or to any of the superior courts of common law to enforce the certificate of the person who taxed the bill, or to punish the attorney for any misconduct certified by such person.

Of enforcing recognisance.—Every criminal court should be empowered, on the non-appearance of any person in pursuance of any recognisance, to declare such recognisance forfeited, together with the recognisance of any person who was bound as surety for such appearance. On the forfeiture of such recognisance the proper officer of the court should forthwith, or as soon as might be, transmit the proper process to be executed by the sheriff.

Of proving previous convictions.—It was suggested that it should be unnecessary to give any evidence of the previous conviction before the grand jury, or to charge the prisoner with it, until after the jury have found him guilty of the offence charged in the indictment, and then that he should be sentenced accordingly. If he admit it he should be sentenced accordingly; and if he deny it, let the jury be then charged to try the question, and the evidence given in the same manner as at present.

Of new trials to be granted by the judges in cases reserved for their opinion.—The judges, on the determination of any case reserved, should be empowered in their discretion to order the verdict to be set aside and a new trial to be had; and where several prisoners have been jointly indicted and convicted, it should be left to the discretion of the judges to order a new trial as to all or any of them; and a similar power should be given to the Court of Queen's Bench to grant a new trial to any prisoner who has been convicted, although others convicted with him may not appear in Court.

Of the practice of the Home Office in criminal cases after conviction.—Some means should be taken in order to ascertain the truth of the facts stated to the Home Office after conviction, which did not appear on the trial. The Home Office should, therefore, be invested with authority to direct investigations to be made as to any statement which might be sent to it. In cases when the matter, after such investigations, remained in such doubt as to render it difficult to decide on which side the truth lay, the Home Office might order the prisoner to be tried again.

Of district officers to superintend prosecutions.—The duties of this officer are enumerated as follows:—

On the commission of any heinous offence he should proceed to the place, and cause all necessary inquiries to be made, with a view to the discovery of the offender. In order to enable him to perform this duty it should be incumbent on all peace officers to give him notice of the commission of every such offence.

He should have authority to direct all peace officers to assist in his inquiries.

He should be empowered to attend any investigation before the magistrates or coroner, and be entitled to regulate the examination of witnesses and the evidence adduced, and to see that the proceedings on such occasions were regularly conducted.

In all capital cases it should be his duty to attend before the magistrates or coroner; and in every other case, which from its difficulty or particular circumstances required more than ordinary care and attention, he should also attend before the magistrates if practicable.

In all cases, to which he did not personally attend, it should be his duty to read the depositions, and to give any directions to the attorney for the prosecution as to any thing which might appear to him expedient to be done, *e. g.*, the obtaining additional evidence, or the omitting superfluous witnesses.

Where a defendant called witnesses before the magistrates, or was expected to call witnesses on his trial, it should be his duty to make, or cause to be made, any such inquiries as should seem expedient to ascertain whether the defence were founded in truth or the contrary.

In any case where on investigation it appeared to him that the prisoner had an honest defence to set up, and where he was also satisfied that the prisoner was so poor as to be unable to make that defence, he should be empowered, in his discretion, to direct an attorney to be employed, and such witnesses to be subpoenaed as he thought fit, or the latter only.

Where the magistrates entertained any doubts, and required his opinion, it should be his duty to advise them, and in cases of difficulty to obtain the opinion of the Crown counsel, hereafter suggested, for their guidance.

When a case had been sent to trial, it should be his duty to take care that any additional inquiries that were expedient should be made.

Whenever any attorney applied to him as to any evidence to be obtained or other matters to be done, it should be his duty to decide what should be done, and the responsibility of its being directed to be done or omitted should rest upon his shoulders.

It should be his duty to attend the grand jury, swear the witnesses, and watch their evidence, with the depositions or a copy in his hand, and ask any questions that might be necessary to elicit all the evidence they could give.

It should also be his duty to see that the grand jury did not throw out any bill unless the whole of the members of it voted on the bill; but he should

take no part in their deliberations as to the finding or throwing out of any bill, though it should be his duty to explain the nature of the charge contained in the indictment, and any matter or thing which might tend to facilitate the performance of their duties.

In case after conviction the Court or the Home Office should require any information, it should be his duty to make, or cause to be made, any inquiries that should be necessary for the purpose of obtaining such information.

Wherever the depositions of witnesses or the examinations of prisoners appeared to be irregularly or improperly taken, it should be his duty to call the attention of the clerk of the magistrates to such irregularity or impropriety, with a view to preventing its recurrence in future.

In all cases of difficulty, and where any question arose as to whether the prosecution ought to be proceeded with, it should be his duty to submit the depositions, &c. to the Crown counsel, hereinafter suggested.

Wherever he was of opinion that any prosecution ought not to be proceeded with, either because no offence had been committed, or for want of any sufficient evidence to make out a case, and the Crown counsel sanctioned such opinion, it should be his duty to give notice to the prosecutor and witnesses, and the attorney, not to proceed any further with such prosecution, and not to attend at the assizes or sessions; and also, in case the prisoner was in custody, to order the gaoler to discharge him; and, in case he was on bail, to give him notice that he need not attend at the assizes or sessions, as far as such particular prosecution was concerned.

Where anything was done by his directions or under his advice which did not fall within the ordinary course of the prosecution, it should be his duty to ascertain the expense thereof, and, where practicable, to make an arrangement beforehand for its being done on the most reasonable terms which could be obtained.

Where any public nuisance was created, it should be his duty to give notice to the parties forthwith to abate the same; and in case of their neglect or refusal, it should be his duty to institute a prosecution against the parties.

Wherever he had information of the maltreatment of any child, apprentice, servant, idiot, or insane person, or the like, it should be his duty to have the case brought before the magistrates.

In all cases where there was no prosecutor, or where the prosecutor did not think fit when before the magistrate to name his own attorney to conduct the prosecution, it should be his duty to direct the proceedings of the attorney nominated by the magistrates; and so likewise in any case where the magistrates, in their discretion, did not think that the prosecutor was a fit person to have the control over the prosecution.

He might also be vested with authority to arrange the time at which witnesses in particular cases should come to the assizes or sessions, and as to the means for their accommodation during their sojourn there, and

anything else which might tend to facilitate the proceedings or lessen the expenses of prosecutions.

It should also be his duty to direct the police to take any measures which in his judgment might tend to the detection and punishment of well-known thieves and receivers of stolen property.

His duties should commence with the first information of an offence, and continue until the case had been finally disposed of; and it should be his special duty to elicit the truth, not merely on the part of the prosecution, but on that of the prisoner also. In fact, he ought to be a minister of justice. He ought, therefore, from the beginning to the end, to keep his attention alive to whatever might be conducive to the real ends of justice.

Such are the principal duties which such an officer ought to perform; and although at first sight they may appear numerous, yet there is no doubt that in most counties they might very well be performed by a single officer, though in large counties, where there is a great amount of crime, a second officer would be required.

The appointment of such officer should be vested in the Crown, but his salary should be paid by the district for which he was appointed; for that district would reap the benefit of his services, and therefore ought to pay for them. His appointment ought to be during good behaviour, and his office ought in no way to be subject to the control or liable to the interference of the magistrates. The amount of his salary should depend on the time occupied in the discharge of his duties. In some districts, where there was a great quantity of criminal business, his whole time might be required to be devoted to it. In others, a portion of his time only, and his salary ought to be fixed accordingly. The salary ought to be determined by the Government, and not by the magistrates in session, or, if they were permitted to report on the amount the Government should have a discretionary power to adopt or alter it.

Of the Crown counsel.—As important cases occur, which require the opinion of counsel as to the mode of indicting the evidence and other matters, it is essential that the power to consult some counsel should be afforded, and it would seem better that some one counsel in London should be appointed to whom the district officers above suggested should refer, in all cases of difficulty. Such an officer as the Crown counsel might issue rules for a general mode of procedure in criminal cases, and afford essential service in the amendment of the criminal law, and equalize the punishment of offences.

Of the public prosecutor.—The appointment of particular counsel to conduct all prosecutions is not thought to be productive of any real or substantial benefit to the administration of criminal justice. What is really wanted is not a different mode of conducting prosecutions in court, but a better method of preparing all cases before they come into court, and that can only be obtained by means of a very different class of officers from public prosecutors.

Of district attorneys.—Suggestions have been made that district attorneys should be appointed to conduct all prosecutions in England, but there appear to be many objections to any such course.

Of stopping prosecutions.—The district officer and Crown counsel above mentioned might be invested with the power, upon their joint authority, of stopping any prosecution; but the power vested in them should be subject to the prosecutor having liberty to apply to the Court for leave to prefer a bill of indictment.

Of the payment of clerks to the justices of the peace by a salary.—In all cases it would be preferable that a salary should be given in lieu of all the fees received.

The report proceeds with observations on the following resolutions moved by Lord Brougham.

I. That it is the duty of the Government to provide effectually for the execution of the criminal law by the discovery, the securing, and the prosecution of offenders. II. That the local police establishments ought to be under the direct superintendence and control of the Government, and that the same rules should as nearly as local circumstances will permit be everywhere applied. III. That the appointment of a regular constabulary force should be obligatory upon the local authorities. IV. That in addition to such regular force a reserve force ought to be maintained of persons with moderate pay to be called out for a short time merely in order to be inspected and trained, and to be bound to serve when required by the magistrate. V. That a sufficient number of stipendiary magistrates should be appointed in the other towns of considerable size with the powers and duties of those appointed for London and Middlesex, so far as those powers and duties relate to the examination and commitment of persons charged with offences, and to the criminal jurisdiction vested in them. VI. and VII. relate to public prosecutors. VIII. and IX. relate to the holding of more frequent assizes and sessions. X. That the same criminal jurisdiction should be given to the judges of the County Courts as is at present possessed by the Quarter Sessions of the Peace, that this jurisdiction should extend over the district subject to their civil jurisdiction, and that the justices of every county may be relieved from the obligation to hold sessions oftener than four times a year, whensoever it shall appear that besides those four sessions and the assizes there is a sufficient number of county court criminal sittings to give two criminal courts monthly in the district. XI. That a reasonable sum for trouble and expenses should be allowed to all persons summoned up to attend as petty jurors on any criminal trial.

The last section of the report refers to the Report of the Select Committee on Public Prosecutors.

No. LVIII.—COUNTY COURTS.

Return to an Address of the House of Commons, dated 8th February, 1856, for Return from each County Court in England and Wales of the Number of Plaints entered, Causes tried, Appeals from Decisions,ittings of Court, and Moneys received and paid, &c., from the 1st day of January to the 31st day of December, 1855, both days inclusive. (Mr. Fitzroy.) (372.)

THE number of plaints entered in the County Courts from their first establishment in March 1847 to 1855, inclusive, was, 4,114,375; of which 538,168 plaints were entered in 1855, and 526,718 in 1854. The number of causes tried, or in which judgment was entered, in the same period, 1847 to 1855, was 2,272,054; of which 285,178 in 1855, and 282,224 in 1854. The number of causes tried above 20*l.*, and not exceeding 50*l.*, from 1850 to 1855, under the 13 & 14 Vict., c. 61, was 32,954; of which 4,686 in 1855, and 5,300 in 1854. The total number of days that the courts have sat from 1847 to 1855 inclusive, was 73,759; of which 8,603 days in 1855, and 8,643 in 1854. The total amount of moneys for which the plaints were entered was 12,807,903*l.*; of which 1,495,605*l.* in 1855, and 1,544,650*l.* in 1854. The total amount of moneys, exclusive of costs, for which judgment has been obtained, 6,605,231*l.*; of which 736,077*l.* in 1855, and 764,169*l.* in 1854. The total amount of moneys paid into court in satisfaction of debts sued for without proceeding to judgment was 882,285*l.*; of which 111,127*l.* in 1855, and 111,207*l.* in 1854. The gross total amount of fees received (whether for home or foreign courts), distinguishing the amount of fees for each offices, and on account of the general fund, was 2,336,074*l.* In 1855 the total amount was 268,731*l.*; of which 84,376*l.* the judges' fund; 84,176*l.* clerks' fees, including those in execution book; 60,368*l.* bailiff's fees, including those on execution; 40,011*l.* general fund. The gross total amount of moneys received to the credit of suitors from 1850 to 1855 was 3,592,022*l.*; and the amount paid out to suitors 3,041,564*l.* The total number of causes tried with the assistance of a jury, from 1847 to 1855, was 7,193, of which 685 in 1855, and 715 in 1854. The number of causes in which the party requiring a jury has obtained a verdict, 3,625, of which 338 in 1855. The number of plaints entered by consent of parties from the 14th August 1850 to the 31st December, 1855, was 174, and the number of plaints tried, 128. In 1854 and 1855 there were 45 and 36 respectively. From the 14th August, 1850, to the 31st December, 1855, there were 142 appeals made, of which 43 decisions of County Courts were confirmed, 43 were reversed, and 55 appeals dropped. The amount received of Her Majesty's Paymaster General by the treasurers of the 60 circuits from the 1st January to the 31st December, 1855, was 24,670*l.*, and the amount paid to the Paymaster General, 15,500*l.* Of the appeals from the 1st January, 1854, to 31st December, 1855, 3 appeals were from the Leeds Court, in 2 of which the decision of the County Courts was reversed and 1 dropped, and three appeals from Llanelly, 2 of which dropped and 1 was pending. From other courts there were respectively 1 or 2 appeals.

No. LIX.—COURT OF BANKRUPTCY.

Return to an Order of the House of Lords, dated 2nd June, 1856, for Return from the Messengers of the Court of Bankruptcy in London, and of the District Courts of Bankruptcy, from the 1st day of June, 1855, to the 1st day of June, 1856, of the Total Amount of Charges and Fees received by them during that period; and also of the Total Amount paid thereout for Expenses for the same period; such Return to be examined and certified as correct by the Registrar of the Court. (286. L.)

	Charges and Fees received.	Amount paid thereout.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Court of Bankruptcy, London :		
John Drewett Austin - - - -	3,070 10 11	1,960 8 9
Thomas Edward Stubbs - - - -	3,652 18 4	2,636 17 3
James Cooper - - - -	4,093 9 9	2,733 1 0
Thomas Hamber - - - -	3,631 13 10	1,240 6 9
James Johnstone - - - -	5,082 3 3	3,707 3 3
2. Birmingham District		
Francis Ostler Badham - - - -	3,419 19 8	2,425 1 1
William Bodill - - - -	2,237 14 0	1,662 19 10½
3. Bristol District :		
James Crocker - - - -	978 17 2	567 1 5½
Henry Turner - - - -	1,067 13 4	507 5 6
4. Exeter District :		
John Bullivant - - - -	1,092 10 9	626 19 2
5. Leeds District :		
Thomas Wallis Needel - - - -	2,456 6 4	1,562 3 5
Charles Copland Templar - - - -	2,267 10 6	1,352 8 6
6. Manchester District :		
Thomas Jebb Millar - - - -	1,385 14 4	804 4 0
7. Newcastle-upon-Tyne District :		
Job Reeves - - - -	1,706 17 4	1,047 12 0

No. LX.—INSOLVENT DEBTORS' COURT.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 10th June, 1856, for Returns of Petitioners to the Court for Relief of Insolvent Debtors in London, cases from 28th July, 1853, on which day the last Commissioner was appointed, to the 10th June, 1856, distinguishing Petitioners under 1 & 2 Vict., c. 110, and Petitioners under the Protection Acts: also distinguishing the cases allotted to the three Commissioners' Courts, &c. (Mr. Pellatt.) (446.)

UNDER the 1 and 2 Vict., c. 110, prison cases, there were 2,132 petitioners, and 2,079 cases heard; and under the Protection Acts 5 & 6 Vict., c. 116, and 7 & 8 Vict., c. 96, 2,688 prisoners, and 2,603 cases adjudicated upon; total, 4,820 prisoners, and 4,682 cases heard; 138 petitioners in all did not appear. The total number of prisoners discharged forthwith was 3,688; the number of remands or adjournments, 707; the number of petitions dismissed, 282; and the number of cases not yet heard, 25.

No. LXI.—DIVORCE AND MATRIMONIAL CAUSES.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords on the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Bill (H. L.), and on the Law and Practice of Divorce. (181. L.)

THE Committee consisted of the Earls Powis and St. Germans, Viscount Gordon, Lords Berners, Sundridge, Redesdale, Somerhill, Lyndhurst, Wyndford, Campbell, and St. Leonards.

The Committee reported as follows :—

That the Committee have met, and carefully considered the Bill and the law and practice of divorce; and they submit the following resolutions as the conclusions to which they have come :—

That when a wife lives apart from her husband, under a decree of separation *à mensâ et thoro* obtained at her suit, all property which she shall afterwards acquire by her own exertions, by bequest, gift, or otherwise, shall be held by her to her separate use.

That, under the same circumstances, she shall have power to contract, to sue and be sued as a *fême sole*; and her husband shall not be liable in respect of her engagements, or for any costs that she may incur either as plaintiff or defendant, or in any other manner.

That a divorce *à vinculo matrimonii* may be decreed in all cases of adultery committed by the wife, and in all the following cases of adultery committed by the husband :—

Adultery accompanied with cruelty, such cruelty as would be a just ground for a divorce *à mensâ et thoro*. Incestuous adultery. Bigamy. Adultery, with wilful desertion for four years.

That there shall be an appeal from the Judge Ordinary to the full Court.

That there shall be an appeal in cases of divorce *à vinculo matrimonii* to the House of Lords, but only on matters of law.

The Committee therefore recommend that such alterations should be made in the Bill as will give effect to these resolutions.

It was proposed to abolish the action for damages in cases of adultery, or to substitute for it a criminal prosecution in the temporal courts against the adulterer, or against both the offenders, the punishment to be by fine and imprisonment; but these proposals were negatived by the Committee, though in each case by a small majority.

The Committee submit that alterations should be made in the Bill in respect of the composition of the Court of Divorce, by adding thereto the Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas and the Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer, and substituting the Dean of the Arches for the Judge of Probate and Administration, and that any three of the Judges, of whom the Dean of the Arches should be one, should make a quorum.

They are further of opinion that the Compensation Clause should be omitted from the Bill.

The Committee have made alterations in the Bill, corresponding with the above resolutions, together with some others of a less important character, and submit this Report, together with the Bill, as amended, to your lordships.

No. LXII.—CONVICTS (IRELAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 26th Feb., 1856, for Returns of the Number of Convicts in each Convict Prison in Ireland, on 1st January, 1856; Nature and Extent of the several Punishments inflicted and imposed; Maximum Extent of Close Confinement; and Amount of Bedding given to Convicts during Close Confinement in such Establishments. (Mr. Bland.) (123.)

IN the seven convict prisons of Ireland, five for males and two for females, there were, on the 1st January, 2,427 males and 591 females; and in hospital, 191 males and 43 females. The maximum extent of corporal punishment inflicted at Spike Island is 50 lashes; close confinement for one month and reduction of diet for one month; at Philipstown, 48 lashes; at Newgate, 22 lashes. In the female prisons no lashes are given. The maximum extent of close confinement without irons given at Mountjoy, Philipstown, Spike Island, and Cork, is one month; and with irons, at Smithfield, 6 days. There is no solitary confinement. Prisoners undergoing close confinement receive the usual covering and bedding prescribed by the old prison rules, viz., a rug and a blanket during the winter months and a rug in summer, subject of course to the opinion of the medical officer, who visits the prisoners under punishment daily.

No. LXIII.—JUVENILE OFFENDERS (IRELAND).

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 6th June, 1856, for Return of the Number of Offenders, under the age of 15 years, undergoing sentences of Imprisonment in Ireland, on the 1st day of February, 1856, with their respective ages, periods of imprisonment, and the nature of their offences. (Mr. Hughes.) (357.)

IN the county and town gaols of Ireland there were, on the 1st February, 1856, 253 children undergoing sentences of imprisonment, of whom 193 were boys and 60 girls. Of these, 53 were convicted at assizes and quarter sessions, and 230 by summary convictions. 51, viz., 40 boys and 11 girls, were felons, 1 condemned to penal servitude for four years, and 50 to imprisonment; 2 boys were misdemeanants; 96 for offences under Larceny Acts, 79 boys and 17 girls; and 27 misdemeanants, 18 boys and 9 girls; 2 under Revenue Law; 10 upon Poor Law Act; and 65 under Vagrant Act.

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No. LXIV.—PRISONS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Twenty-first Report of the Inspectors, appointed under the provisions of the Act 5 & 6 Will. IV., c. 38, to visit the different Prisons in Great Britain and Scotland.

[*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty.*]

IN the Aberdeen prison, on the 25th July, 1855, there were 93 prisoners. The number of committals in Aberdeenshire in 1855 was 970, or 88·015 per day. There was an increase over 1854 of 174, or 23 per cent., especially among female criminals. In the Peterhead prison 3 prisoners, Huntley, 1; Inverary, 17; Ayr, 43; Kilmarnock, 14; Banff, 16; Cullen, none; Keith, none; Rothesay, 4; Alloa, 8; Dumbarton, 20; Dumfries, 46. In Edinburgh, there were 393 prisoners, viz., 151 male criminals, 233 female criminals, 6 male civil prisoners, and 3 female civil prisoners. The total committals in Edinburgh in 1855 were 4,304, against 5,339 in 1854, and 5,872 in 1853. In Elgin, 6; Cupar, 22; Dunfermline, 13; Dundee, 109; Forfar, 25; Montrose, 9; Arbroath, 4; Haddington, 16; Inverness, 20; Stonehaven, 9; Kinross, 6; Glasgow, 487; Lanark, 13; Airdie, 39; Linlithgow, 19; Peebles, 5; Perth, 464; Perth County Prison, 73; Dumblane, 6; Paisley, 80; Greenock, 46; Dingwall, 5; Jedburgh, 16; Selkirk, 8; Stirling, 74; Dornock, 5, and Stranraer, 10.

In Carlisle prison there were 92 prisoners; Whitehaven, 3; Durham, 297; Morpeth, 106; Tynemouth, 16; Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 196; Berwick-upon-Tweed, 12; Appleby County Gaol, 12; Kendal, 24.

17 Industrial Reformatory Schools were certified under the Acts 17 & 18 Vict., cap. 74 and 86.

No. LXV.—POLICE FORCE, &c., KILKENNY.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 21st August, 1856, for Returns of the Number of Convictions for Assaults on the Agents of the Irish Church Missionary Society, in the City of Kilkenny, for the last twelve months, &c. (Mr. Sullivan.) (220.)

FROM September, 1855, to April, 1856, there were 7 convictions for assault, in the city of Kilkenny, upon the agents of the Irish Church Missionary Society, for which the parties were fined from 1s. to 2s., or one week's imprisonment, and in consequence of which 19 men were added to the police force. The county inspector of constabulary reported, that a good deal of opposition was made to the Scripture readers and tract distributors in Kilkenny, which often led to assaults. On the 16th of April, 1856, James Warren and three boys were assaulted by a mob of women, and upon the matter having been brought before the Kilkenny Petty Sessions, some expressions made by Mr. Smithwick, J.P., respecting a Roman Catholic policeman, employed on the occasion, gave rise to a complaint to the Lord Lieutenant. An explanation having been asked, Mr. Smithwick denied the correctness of the report, and the Lord Lieutenant was satisfied.

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No. CXII.—SUGAR, &c.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 21st Feb., 1856, for

A Return of the Quantities of Sugar imported and retained for Home Consumption, with Rate of Duty charged and Revenue therefrom, from 1800 to 1855 inclusive. An Account of the Imports into the United Kingdom of Sugar, Molasses, Rum, Coffee, Cocoa, and Cotton, from the West Indies, British Guiana, Mauritius, and the British Possessions in India, for the years 1831 to 1855; also the Quantities of Foreign Sugar imported for the same periods. An Account of the Quantity of Refined Sugar and Sugar Candy imported into the United Kingdom in the years 1848, 1849, 1850, 1851, 1852, 1853, 1854, and 1855 respectively. (Mr. Moffatt.) (209.)

IN the year 1800 there were imported into the United Kingdom 3,233,806 cwts. of unrefined sugar, and there were retained for actual consumption 2,156,196 cwts. The net revenue derived from duties on sugar of all sorts was 2,162,141*l.* In 1810 the quantity imported was 4,920,523 cwts.; consumed, 3,930,323 cwts. Revenue, 3,991,273*l.* In 1820, the imports were 4,209,676 cwts.; consumption, 3,275,947 cwts. Revenue, 3,925,481*l.* In 1830, imports, 4,916,004 cwts.; consumption, 4,057,224 cwts. Revenue, 4,767,374*l.* In 1840, imports, 4,035,845 cwts.; consumption, 3,594,407 cwts. Revenue, 4,449,070*l.* In 1850, imports, 6,291,535 cwts.; consumption, 6,091,492 cwts. Revenue, 3,884,441*l.* In 1855, imports, 7,324,133 cwts.; consumption, 7,259,148 cwts. Revenue, 5,058,500*l.*

The rates of duty on unrefined sugar in 1800 were 1*l.* per cwt. for brown British West India; 3*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., and 42*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.* per cent. for East India and Mauritius; and 1*l.* 14*s.* per cwt. foreign. In 1810, 1*l.* 7*s.* to 1*l.* 9*s.* British West India; 1*l.* 10*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* and 1 per cent. East India and Mauritius; and 3*l.* 2*s.* foreign. In 1820, 1*l.* 7*s.* British West India; 1*l.* 17*s.* East India, &c.; and 3*l.* foreign. In 1830, 1*l.* 4*s.* British West India and Mauritius; 1*l.* 12*s.* East India; and 3*l.* 3*s.* foreign. In 1840, 1*l.* 5*s.* 2½*d.* British West India; 1*l.* 5*s.* 2½*d.* to 1*l.* 13*s.* 7½*d.* East India; and 3*l.* 6*s.* 1½*d.* foreign. In 1850, sugar of any British possession into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited, equal to white clayed, 12*s.* 10*d.*; not equal to white clayed, 11*s.* Of other British possessions, equal to white clayed, 15*s.* 5*d.*; equal to brown clayed, but not equal to white clayed, 14*s.* 4*d.*; not equal to brown clayed, 13*s.* 3*d.* Foreign sugar, equal to white clayed, 18*s.* 1*d.*; equal to brown clayed, but not equal to white clayed, 17*s.*; not equal to brown clayed, 15*s.* 6*d.* In 1855, on all sorts of whatever growth, 17*s.* 6*d.* equal to white clayed; 15*s.* not equal to white clayed; and 13*s.* 9*d.* not equal to brown clayed.

On refined sugar, the duties in 1800 were, foreign, 5*l.* 5*s.* 5½*d.* per cwt.; brown sugar candy, foreign, 3*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.* and 3*l.* per cent.; white sugar candy, foreign, 4*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* per cwt. and 3*l.* per cent. *ad valorem*. In 1810, 8*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* refined sugar, foreign; 4*l.* 16*s.* brown sugar candy; and

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7*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* white sugar candy. In 1820, 8*l.* 8*s.* refined sugar; 5*l.* 12*s.* brown sugar candy; and 8*l.* 8*s.* white sugar candy. In 1840, 8*l.* 16*s.* 4½*d.* refined sugar; 5*l.* 17*s.* 7½*d.* brown sugar candy; and 8*l.* 16*s.* 4½*d.* white sugar candy, foreign. In 1850, 14*s.* 8*d.* per cwt. refined sugar of any British possession into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited; 18*s.* 8*d.* of other British possessions; and 1*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.* foreign. In 1855, 1*l.* of all sorts, of whatever growth, and whencesoever imported.

The imports of unrefined sugar from the British West Indies, British Guiana, Mauritius, and the British possessions in the East Indies, were, of the produce of British possessions in 1831, 4,781,551 cwts.; in 1840, 3,230,361 cwts.; in 1850, 4,940,022 cwts.; and in 1854, to July 5, 2,740,114 cwts. Of foreign produce from British possessions, in 1831, 23,898 cwts.; in 1840, 218,139 cwts.; in 1850, 23,073 cwts.; in 1853, 7,357 cwts. The aggregate importation from the British possessions was, in 1831, 4,805,449 cwts.; in 1840, 3,258,500 cwts.; in 1850, 4,963,095 cwts.; and in 1855, 5,010,555 cwts. Of refined, there were imported 11,377 cwts. in 1855. The aggregate importation of sugar of all sorts from the British possessions was, in 1831, 4,805,455 cwts.; in 1840, 3,259,446 cwts.; in 1845, 4,914,616 cwts.; in 1850, 4,975,778 cwts.; in 1855, 5,021,932 cwts. Of molasses, there were imported, in 1831, 323,306 cwts.; in 1840, 432,220 cwts.; in 1850, 501,936 cwts.; and in 1855, 235,322 cwts.

Of rum, the imports from the British possessions were, in 1831, 7,847,783 gallons; in 1840, 4,124,242 gallons; in 1850, 4,652,232 gallons; and in 1855, 7,843,829 gallons.

Of coffee, there were imported from the British possessions in 1831, 27,673,988 cwts.; in 1840, 29,683,029 cwts.; in 1850, 39,773,043 cwts.; and in 1855, 46,880,830 cwts. The imports from the West Indies decreased from 20,030,802 cwts. in 1831, to 3,083,564 cwts. in 1855. The imports from Ceylon increased from 1,407,086 cwts. in 1831 to 39,443,407 cwts. in 1855.

Of cocoa, the imports from the British possessions, in 1831, were 1,491,947 cwts.; in 1840, 2,374,349 cwts.; in 1850, 1,988,597 cwts.; and in 1855, 4,794,571 cwts.

Of cotton wool, the imports from the British possessions, in 1831, were 28,206,838 lbs.; in 1840, 77,877,692 lbs.; in 1850, 71,784,607 lbs.; and in 1855, 145,730,100 lbs. The imports of cotton from the West Indies decreased from 2,401,685 lbs. in 1831, to 468,452 lbs. in 1855. From the East Indies they increased from 25,805,153 cwts. in 1831, to 143,486,742 lbs. in 1855, chiefly from the Madras presidency.

Of foreign sugar, there were imported, in 1831, 583,216 cwts.; in 1840, 821,621 cwts.; in 1850, 1,695,717 cwts.; and in 1855, 2,713,911 cwts.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

19° & 20° VICTORIA.

SERIES A.—FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

CAP. IV.—*An Act to apply the sum of 1,631,500*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year ending the 31st March, 1856.* (7th March, 1856.)

EXCHEQUER BILLS FUNDING.

CAP. V.—*An Act for Funding Exchequer Bills, and raising Money by way of Annuity.* (7th March, 1856.)

All subscribers towards funding the sum of 3,000,000*l.* in Exchequer Bills to be entitled to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* 3 per cent. Consols for every 100*l.* such bills. The subscribers may pay money instead of Exchequer Bills, paying an addition of 5*s.* per cent. on the money paid. The subscribers are entitled to receive interest on Exchequer Bills. Guardians or trustees are empowered to subscribe. The annuities to be deemed personal estate, not liable to any foreign attachment by the custom of London, or otherwise.

ANNUITIES.

CAP. VI.—*An Act for raising Five Millions by way of Annuities.* (7th March, 1856.)

Every contributor of 100*l.* entitled to 111*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* in the 3 per cent. Consols. Guardians or trustees have power to subscribe for infants. Annuities to be deemed personal estate, not liable to foreign attachment, &c. A sinking fund to be formed by paying the sum of 250,000*l.* a year to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt.

CONSOLIDATED FUND (26,000,000*l.*)

CAP. VII.—*An Act to apply the sum of 26,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year 1856.* (14th March, 1856.)

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PUBLIC WORKS.

CAP. XVII.—*An Act to authorize for a further period the advance of Money out of the Consolidated Fund, for carrying on Public Works and Fisheries, and for the Employment of the Poor.* (29th April, 1856.)

Power is granted to the Treasury to charge 360,000*l.* per annum upon the Consolidated Fund, by issues not exceeding 90,000*l.* per quarter for the purpose of such advances or loans.

EXCHEQUER BILLS. (21,182,700*l.*)

CAP. XIX.—*An Act for raising the sum of 21,182,700*l.* by Exchequer Bills for the service of the year 1856.* (29th April, 1856.)

ANNUITIES (No. 2.)

CAP. XXI.—*An Act for raising a further sum of Money by way of Annuities.* (5th June, 1856.)

Contributors entitled to 107*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*, 3 per cent. Consols, for every 100*l.* contributed. A sinking fund to be formed by the payment of 250,000*l.* a year.

FIRE INSURANCES.

CAP. XXII.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to the Duties on Fire Insurance.* (5th June, 1856.)

Fire insurance duties to be chargeable on all insurances of property situate within the United Kingdom, whether the same is made within or out of the United Kingdom. Where the insurance is made out of the United Kingdom by unlicensed foreign companies the person insured to be chargeable with the duties. Every person who shall, as agent, receive proposals, &c., for insurance by companies out of the United Kingdom, to be deemed a person keeping an office for insuring property from loss by fire, be required to take out licenses, and to give security for payment of the duties, under penalty for neglect of 100*l.* Persons keeping offices for insurance on behalf of foreign companies to be chargeable with the duties on such insurances. Re-insurances from loss by fire not to be chargeable with the per-centage duty, but with the policy stamp only.

INSURANCE ON LIVES (ABATEMENT OF INCOME-TAX) CONTINUANCE.

CAP. XXXIII.—*An Act to continue the Act for extending for a Limited Time the Provision for Abatement of Income-Tax in respect of Insurance on Lives.* (30th June, 1856.)

EXCISE.

CAP. XXXIV.—*An Act to grant Allowances of Excise Duties on Malt in Stock; to alter and regulate certain Drawbacks and Allowances in respect of Malt Duty; to repeal and re-impose the Excise Duty on Sugar used in brewing Beer; and to amend the Law relating to Malt Roasters.* (30th June, 1856.)

The following allowances to be granted to malt traders on malt in stock as ascertained by the officers of excise:—For every bushel of malt made in England from barley, or any other corn or grain, one shilling and three pence halfpenny. For every bushel of such malt made in Scotland or Ireland from barley, or any other other corn or grain except bear or bigg, one shilling and three pence halfpenny; and for every bushel of such malt made in Scotland or Ireland from bear or bigg only, without any mixture of barley, or any other corn or grain therewith, one shilling. Drawbacks are also granted on beer exported to foreign parts as merchandise; for every barrel of thirty-six gallons, in the brewing of which beer the worts used before fermentation were of certain specific gravities, the following rates:—If the specific gravity of the worts was not less than 1,041° a drawback of 4s. 1d. per barrel. If of 1,054°, 5s. 5d.; 1,068°, 6s. 9d.; 1,081°, 8s. 1d.; 1,095°, 9s. 6d.; 1,108°, 10s. 10d.; 1,122°, 12s. 2d. The excise duty on sugar used in brewing beer to cease after the 5th July, 1856, to be re-imposed after the 5th April, 1858.

FATORIES.

CAP. XXXVIII.—*An Act for the further Amendment of the Laws relating to Labour in Factories.* (30th June, 1856.)

The 21st sect. of the 7 & 8 Vict., c. 15, so far as the same refers to the mill-gearing, to apply only to those parts thereof with which children and young persons and women are liable to come in contact. A penalty is also established for not fencing machinery after notice.

SARDINIAN LOAN.

CAP. XXXIX.—*An Act to carry into effect a Convention respecting a Loan by Her Majesty to the King of Sardinia.* (30th June, 1856.)

Power is granted to the Treasury to direct the sums required for the further loan of 1,000,000*l.* to Sardinia, to be issued out of the Consolidated Fund.

ANNUITIES.

CAP. XLIII.—*An Act to authorize Issues out of the Consolidated Fund for the Redemption of certain Annuities charged on Branches of the Gross Revenues.* (7th July, 1856.)

SERIES A.

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EXCHEQUER BILLS.

CAP. XLIV.—*An Act for raising the Sum of 4,000,000*l.* by Exchequer Bills and Exchequer Bonds for the Service of the year 1856.* (14th July, 1856.)

The Treasury may raise 4,000,000*l.* by Exchequer Bills in like manner as is prescribed by 48 Geo. III., c. 1; 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 15; and 5 & 6 Vict., c. 66. The bills to bear an interest not exceeding the rate of three pence halfpenny per cent. per diem. The bills to be current in payment of public revenue after twelve calendar months from their dates. If the full amount of 4,000,000*l.* in Exchequer Bills is not issued, Exchequer Bonds may be issued for the remainder; such bonds shall bear interest not exceeding 4 per cent. per annum; and shall be paid off at par at the expiration of any period not exceeding six years from the date of such bonds.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

CAP. XLVII.—*An Act for the Incorporation and Regulation of Joint Stock Companies and other Associations.* (14th July, 1856.)

The Act does not apply to banking and insurance companies.

PART I.—*Constitution and Incorporation of Companies and Associations.*—

§ 3. Seven or more persons may form themselves into an incorporated company by memorandum of association and registration with or without limited liability. § 4. Not more than twenty persons can carry on business in partnership unless registered as a company, or specially authorized by royal charter or private Act of Parliament, or are engaged in working within the jurisdiction of the Stannaries, subject to the penalty of such persons becoming severally liable for the payment of the whole debts of the partnership. § 5. Specifies the matter to be stated in the memorandum of association. § 6. No company to be registered under a name identical with that by which a subsisting company is already registered. § 7. Gives the form of memorandum of association, which, when registered, is binding on the company and shareholders. § 8. Every subscriber of the memorandum must have, at least, one share in the company. §§ 9, 10. Special regulations may be prescribed by articles of association, which may bind the company and shareholders. § 11. The memorandum of association and the articles must be stamped, and § 12 registered at the office of the registrar of joint stock companies. § 13. The registrar to give certificates thereof; and the company is declared to be with limited liability or not. § 14. If the directors declare or pay any dividend when the company is known by them to be insolvent, they become liable for all the debts of the company. § 15. Shares may be issued as soon as a certificate of incorporation has been granted; such shares to be personal estate.

Register of Shareholders.—§ 16. Every company to keep a register of shareholders, in separate books; and § 17, an annual list of the same to be

sent to the registrar, specifying names and addresses, and the number of shares held by each. § 18. A penalty of five pounds is imposed on any company not keeping a proper register. § 19. A shareholder is one who has accepted any share in a company, and whose name is entered in the register of shareholders. § 20. In case of transfer, the transferrer remains holder until the name of the transferee is entered in the register book in respect thereof. § 21. A certificate of share by the company is *prima facie* evidence of title. § 22. The amount of calls on any share is a debt due from the holder of that share to the company. § 23. The register of shareholders, commencing from the incorporation of the company, to be kept at the registered office of the company, to be left open for inspection of any shareholder gratis, and of any other person on the payment of one shilling. § 24. The company has power to close the register, upon advertisement, for any time not exceeding 21 days. § 25. Remedy is provided for improper entry, or omission of entry, in the register. § 26. The register of shareholders to be evidence. § 27. Copies of memorandum, and articles of association, to be given to every shareholder.

PART II.—*Management and Administration of Companies.*—§ 28. A registered office must be provided for the company, under penalty; and § 29, notice to the registrar to be given of the situation of the registered office. § 30. Every limited company must paint or affix, and keep painted or affixed, its name on the outside of every office or place in which the business of the company is carried on, in a conspicuous position, in letters easily legible, and shall have its name engraved in legible character on its seal, and have its name mentioned in all notices, advertisements, and other official publications of the company, and in any bills of exchange, promissory notes, endorsements, cheques, and orders for money or goods, and in all bills of parcels, invoices, receipts, and letters of credit of the company. § 31. Penalties are imposed for the non-publication of name or offices of the company. § 32. A general meeting of the company to be held once a year. §§ 33—36, relate to the power of the company to alter regulations by special resolution, the same to be registered. § 37. Any increase of capital must be notified to the registrar. § 38. No commercial partnership can hold more than two acres of land without the sanction of the Board of Trade. § 39. If a company carries on business with less than seven shareholders for six months, each member is liable for the whole of the debts of the company. § 40. The company must keep a minute of the proceedings at meetings.

Legal Instruments of Company.—§ 41. Any contract on behalf of the company may be made by writing under seal, by writing signed by the parties, and by parole. § 42. The company may empower any person to execute deeds on their behalf abroad. § 43. Promissory notes and bills of exchange signed by any person acting under authority of the company to be deemed as having been signed on behalf of the company. §§ 44—47, relate to mortgages and conveyances according to English law, and bond and disposition in security according to Scotch law.

Examination of Affairs of Company.—§§ 48—50. Upon the application of one-fifth in number and value of the shareholders, the Board of Trade may appoint one or more competent inspectors to examine into the affairs of the company, and to report thereon. § 51. The company also may appoint inspectors for the purpose of examining into its own affairs. §§ 52—55 relate to services of notices on the company. §§ 56, 57 refer to legal proceedings, and § 58 gives power to the Board of Trade to alter the forms in the schedule from time to time.

PART III.—*Winding up.*—§§ 59 and 60 refer to the application of winding-up provisions to companies registered under this Act and under 7 & 8 Vict., c. 110, and to the definition of the Court. § 61. The liability of the existing shareholders, to be liable to contribute to the assets of the company to an amount sufficient to pay the debts of the company and the costs and expenses of winding up the same, with this qualification, that if the company is limited no contribution shall be required from any shareholder exceeding the amount, if any, unpaid of the shares held by him. § 62. In a company not limited, any person who has ceased to be a shareholder within the period of three years prior to the commencement of the winding-up, shall be deemed to be an existing shareholder as respects rights and liabilities, with this exception, that he shall not be liable in respect to any debt of the company contracted after the time at which he ceased to be a shareholder. § 63. In a limited company, the liability of the shareholder continues for one year after he has ceased to be a shareholder. § 64 specifies the time when the winding-up of the company is deemed to commence. § 65 defines the legal character and liability of the contributory. Any existing or former shareholder upon whom calls are authorized to be made is a contributory, and the representatives of any deceased contributory shall be liable in a due course of administration to the same extent as such contributory would be liable if alive. § 66. For the purpose of ascertaining the liability of existing and former shareholders as between themselves, the following rule shall be adopted:—(1.) In the case of a company other than a limited company every transferee of shares shall, in a degree proportioned to the shares transferred, indemnify the transferrer against all existing and future debts of the company. (2.) In the case of a limited company every transferee shall indemnify the transferrer against all calls made or accrued due on the shares transferred subsequently to the transfer. §§ 67—87 relate to the circumstances under which a company may be wound up by the Court, and to the course pursued by the Court. §§ 88—93 refer to the appointment of official liquidators, their style, duties, and powers. §§ 94—101 to the powers of the court to make rules. §§ 102—105 specify the circumstances under which a company may be wound up voluntarily, and the consequences of voluntary winding-up in relation to the property of the company.

PART IV.—Is dedicated to the registration office.

PART V.—To the repeal of former Acts, and to temporary provisions.

DISTILLATION FROM RICE.

CAP. LI.—*An Act to permit the use of Rice in the distillation of Spirits.*
(14th July, 1856.)

Power is given to any licensed victualler to distil spirits from rice. When sugar, mixed with any other material, is used in distillation, the distiller is chargeable with the duty on spirits in respect of such sugar.

REVENUE (TRANSFER OF CHARGES).

CAP. LIX.—*An Act to alter the mode of Providing for certain Expenses now charged upon certain parts of the Public Revenue.* (21st July, 1856.)

CUSTOMS.

CAP. LXXV.—*An Act for the further Alteration and Amendment of the Laws and Duties of Customs.* (29th July, 1856.)

Bichromate of potash and metal of any sort, and fit only to be re-manufactured, admitted free of duty. The duty on beer to be 1*l.* the barrel; on musical instruments 9*d.* the lb.; and on vinegar 3*d.* the gallon. § 3 imposes a penalty on persons cutting adrift customs' boats, &c.

CONSOLIDATED FUND (APPROPRIATION.)

CAP. CV.—*An Act to apply a Sum out of the Consolidated Fund and the surplus of Ways and Means, to the Service of the year 1856, and to appropriate the Supplies granted in this Session of Parliament.* (29th July, 1856.)

HAY AND STRAW TRADE.

CAP. CXIV.—*An Act to Prevent False Packing and other Frauds in the Hay and Straw Trade.* (29th July, 1856.)

GREAT BRITAIN.

PAWNBROKERS.

CAP. XXVII.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to Pawnbrokers.*
(23rd June, 1856.)

All persons declared, as hereafter, to be pawnbrokers, must take out proper licenses, viz.—Every person who shall keep a house, shop, or other place for the purchase or sale of goods, or for taking in goods by way of security for money advanced thereon, and shall purchase, or receive, or take in any goods, and pay, or advance, or lend thereon any sum of money not exceeding ten pounds, under any agreement, expressed or implied, or when, from the nature of the dealing, it may be inferred that such goods may be afterwards redeemed or repurchased on any terms whatever.

RACE-HORSE DUTY.

CAP. LXXXII.—*An Act to repeal and re-impose, under new regulations, the Duty on Race-horses.* (29th July, 1856.)

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ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

MERCANTILE LAW AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCVII.—*An Act to amend the Laws of England and Ireland affecting Trade and Commerce.* (29th July, 1856.)

§ 1. Persons acquiring title to goods before they have been seized or attached under a writ against the seller protected. § 2. Specific delivery of goods sold may be sustained. § 3. The consideration for a guarantee need not appear by writing. § 4. Guarantee to or for a firm to cease upon a change in the firm, except the intention of the parties that such promise or guarantee shall continue, shall appear. § 5. A surety who discharges the liability to be entitled to the assignment of all securities held by the creditor. § 6. Acceptance of a bill, inland or foreign, to be in writing on it and signed. § 7. Bills made in any part of the United Kingdom to be inland bills. § 8. With reference to repairs of ships, every port within the United Kingdom to be held a home port. § 9. Limitation of actions for merchants' accounts to be six years after the cause of such action or suits has arisen. § 10. Absence beyond seas, or imprisonment of a creditor, not to be a disability. § 11. The period of limitation to run, as to joint debtors in the Kingdom, though some are beyond the sea. Judgment recovered against debtors in the Kingdom to be no bar to proceedings against others beyond seas after their return. § 12. Beyond sea to be beyond the United Kingdom and adjacent islands. § 13. An acknowledgment, or promise, signed by an agent, to have the same effect as if it had been signed by the party himself. § 14. Part payment by one contractor not to prevent bar by certain statutes of limitation in favour of another contractor.

ENGLAND.

BANKERS' COMPOSITIONS.

CAP. XX.—*An Act to continue certain Compositions payable to Bankers who have ceased to issue Bank-notes.* (5th June, 1856.)

The 25th section of the 7 & 8 Vict., c. 32, is repealed. The composition payable under that Act is to be continued in force until Parliament shall prohibit the issue of bank-notes, or until the exclusive privilege of the Bank of England be determined.

DRAFTS ON BANKERS.

CAP. XXV.—*An Act to Amend the Laws relating to Drafts on Bankers.* (23rd June, 1856.)

In every case where a draft on any banker made payable to bearer, or to order on demand, bears across its face an addition, in written or stamped

letters, of the name of any banker, or of the words, "and Company," in full or abbreviated, either of such additions shall have the force of a direction to the bankers upon whom such draft is made, that the same is to be paid only to or through some banker, and the same shall be payable only to or through some banker.

INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT SOCIETIES.

CAP. XL.—*An Act to amend an Act of the 17th & 18th of Her present Majesty relating to Industrial and Provident Societies.* (7th July, 1856.)

The recited Act to apply to all societies constituted under the Industrial and Provident Societies' Act, 1852. The time for appointment of officers to sue and be sued extended to one month after the passing of this Act for societies already constituted, or to one month after registration for societies to be constituted. Appointment made by trustees of any member as an officer to sue and be sued confirmed.

STOCK IN TRADE EXEMPTION.

CAP. XLII.—*An Act to continue the Act for the exemption of Stock in Trade from rating.* (7th July, 1856.)

STAMP DUTIES.

CAP. LXXXI.—*An Act to reduce the Stamp Duties on certain Instruments of Proxy; to amend the Laws relating to the Stamping of Articles of Clerkship to Attorneys and others; and to exempt from Stamp Duty admissions to the freedom of the City of London by Redemption.* (29th July, 1856.)

On every letter or power of attorney, proxies, and mandates, the stamp duty to be sixpence. Admission to the freedom of the City of London by redemption exempted from stamp duty.

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

CAP. C.—*An Act to amend the Law with respect to the Election of Directors of Joint Stock Banks in England.* (29th July, 1856.)

Retiring directors in banking companies are now eligible for re-election.

SCOTLAND.

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

CAP. III.—*An Act to extend the Period for which Her Majesty may grant Letters Patent of Incorporation to Joint Stock Banks in Scotland existing before the Act of One thousand eight hundred and forty-six.* (7th March, 1856.)

This Act gives power to her Majesty to grant such patent, notwithstanding anything contained in the 9 and 10 Vict., c. 75.

MERCANTILE LAW (SCOTLAND) AMENDMENT.

CAP. LX.—*An Act to amend the Laws of Scotland affecting Trade and Commerce.* (21st July, 1856.)

§ 1. Goods sold but not delivered not to be attachable by creditors of the seller. § 2. The seller is not entitled to a right of retention generally against a second purchaser. § 3. The seller of goods may attach the same while in his own possession, prior to the date when the sale of such goods to a subsequent purchaser shall have been intimated to him. § 4. The right of landlord not to be affected by it. § 5. The seller is not held to warrant goods except there be an express warranty in contract, or they have been expressly sold for a specific purpose. § 6. All guarantees, securities, or cautionary obligations to be in writing. § 7. No guarantees to or for a firm to be binding after any change of the firm, unless the intention that such guarantee shall continue shall appear. § 8. Cautioners not to be entitled to the benefit of prior diligence against the principal debtor. § 9. Discharge of one cautioner to operate as a discharge to all. § 10. The date of bills and notes may be proved by parole. § 11. The acceptance of bills of exchange must be in writing. § 12. All bills drawn within the United Kingdom on any party within the United Kingdom, to be held inland bills. § 13. Notarial protest not to be necessary except for the purpose of summary diligence. § 14. Notice of dishonour in the case of inland bills to be given as in the case of foreign bills. § 15. When any bill has been lost, stolen, or fraudulently obtained, the holder must prove value given. § 16. The holder of bill or note indorsed after period of payment to be subject to objections. § 17. Carriers to be liable for losses by accidental fires. § 18. Every port in the United Kingdom to be deemed a home port.

INCOME AND LAND TAXES.

CAP. LXXX.—*An Act to grant Relief in Assessing the Income Tax on Lands in Scotland in respect of certain Public Burdens charged thereon: to alter and regulate the Allowances to Clerks to the Commissioners of Income Tax; and to amend the Laws relating to the Land, Assessed, and Income Tax, and the Redemption and Purchase of the Land Tax.* (29th July, 1856.)

IRELAND.

PUBLIC WORKS.

CAP. XVIII.—*An Act to authorize for a further Period the Application of Money for the Purposes of Loans for carrying on Public Works in Ireland.* (29th April, 1856.)

The Treasury may, out of the 360,000*l.* per annum granted, apply a sum not exceeding 15,000*l.* per quarter for public works in Ireland.

No. XLVII.—GRANTS FOR RELIGIOUS PURPOSES.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, dated 26th July, 1856, for

Return of all Grants for Religious Purposes from the Consolidated Fund, and Votes of Parliament to the different Denominations in England, Scotland, and Ireland, for the last five years; similar Returns of sums paid to Theological Professors; and similar Returns of Grants for Religious Purposes in the Colonies. (Mr. Black.) (4.)

THE grants to the Church of England, in the five years 1852 to 1856, amounted to 203,296*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*, of which 57,021*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.* in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and 146,275*l.* in the Colonies. The grants to the Church of Scotland, 106,452*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.*; of which 101,577*l.* 0*s.* 1*d.*, in Scotland, 4,800*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* theological professors, and 875*l.* North American Colonies. The grants to the Church of Rome were 131,910*l.*, and the grants to Protestant Dissenters amounted to 202,243*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.*; making a total of 643,902*l.* 19*s.* 0*d.*

The payments to the Church of England, in 1856, comprised 3,461*l.* Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and 1,200*l.* Episcopalian clergy in Scotland. The Protestant Dissenters in Ireland had, in 1856, 38,546*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.*; the Lord Lieutenant's household, chaplain, &c., 638*l.* 7*s.* The stipends of ministers of the Church of Scotland amounted, in 1856, to 17,039*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.* An annual grant is made, by Royal Sign Manual, of 2,000*l.* to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, for itinerant preachers in the highlands and islands of Scotland; and an annual allowance of 1,000*l.* to the Church of Scotland, for payment of the salaries of its officers. The theological professor of St. Mary's College, University of St. Andrews, gets 352*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* per annum; of King's College, Aberdeen, 162*l.*; of Marischal College, Aberdeen, 136*l.*; of the University of Glasgow, 20*l.*; and of the University of Edinburgh, 130*l.* The grant to the Roman Catholic Maynooth College is 26,360*l.* per annum. There is also a grant to the Roman Catholic theological professors, &c., in the Belfast Academy, of 2,900*l.* a year. The Church of England clergy of the North American provinces got, in 1856, 7,222*l.*; in the west of Africa, 300*l.*; in the Falkland Islands, 300*l.*; and in Heligoland, 100*l.*

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

19° & 20° VICTORIA.

SERIES C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

UNITED KINGDOM.

NATIONAL GALLERY.

CAP. XXIX.—*An Act to extend the Powers of the Trustees and Directors of the National Gallery, and to authorize the Sale of Works of Art belonging to the Public.* (23rd June, 1856.)

GREAT BRITAIN.

REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

CAP. CIX.—*An Act to amend the Mode of Committing Criminals and Vagrant Children to Reformatories.* (29th July, 1856.)

The school to which youthful offenders are committed need not be named in the sentence. They are not to be sent to schools to which their parents object.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY.

CAP. XXXI.—*An Act to amend the Act of the 17th & 18th years of Her Majesty, concerning the University of Oxford and the College of Saint Mary, Winchester.* (23rd June, 1856.)

ADVOWSONS.

CAP. L.—*An Act to enable Parishioners and others forming a numerous class to sell Advowsons held by or in trust for them, and to apply the proceeds in providing Parsonage Houses, augmenting Small Livings, and to other beneficial purposes; and for giving other powers to such persons.* (14th July, 1856.)

The owners at a public meeting may order advowsons to be sold. The proceeds to be applied in payment of costs, or erecting a parsonage house, or in raising the annual value of the living to 150*l.* per annum, or in the repair of the church, erection of schools, &c.

ENDOWMENT SCHOOL AT MOULTON.

CAP. LIII.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for the Endowed School at Moulton, in the County of Lincoln.* (4th July, 1856.)

CHURCH BUILDING COMMISSION.

CAP. LV.—*An Act for transferring the powers of the Church Building Commissioners to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England.* (21st July, 1856.)

EPISCOPAL AND CAPITULAR ESTATES CONTINUANCE.

CAP. LXXIV.—*An Act to continue the Act to facilitate the Management and Improvement of Episcopal and Capitular Estates in England.* (29th July, 1856.)

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.

CAP. LXXXVIII.—*An Act to make further provision for the good Government and Extension of the University of Cambridge, of the Colleges therein, and of the College of King Henry the Sixth at Eton.* (29th July, 1856.)

A Commission is appointed for the purposes of this Act, to continue until the 1st day of January, 1860, the same to have power to require production of documents, &c. A Council of the Senate to be established, to consist of the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, four heads of colleges, four professors of the University, and eight other members of the senate. Power is given to sever benefices from headship of colleges. Persons becoming members of any college not to possess a vested interest. It is no longer necessary for any person upon matriculating, or upon taking or for enabling him to take any degree in arts, law, medicine, or music in the University, to take any oath, or to make any declaration or subscription whatever. No such declaration is necessary for obtaining any exhibition, scholarship, or other college emolument. But unless he have subscribed a declaration stating that he is *bonâ fide* a member of the Church of England, such degree shall not enable him to become a member of the senate, or constitute a qualification for the holding of any office either in the University, or elsewhere, which has been heretofore always held by a member of the United Church of England and Ireland, and for which such degree has heretofore constituted one of the qualifications.

OXFORD COLLEGE ESTATES.

CAP. XCV.—*An Act to give to the University of Oxford and to Colleges in the said University, and to the College of Saint Mary of Winchester, near Winchester, power to sell and exchange Lands under certain conditions.* (29th July, 1856.)

Colleges in the University may sell and exchange lands under certain conditions. The Act to extend to trusts held in trust for special endowments.

BISHOPS OF LONDON AND DURHAM RETIREMENT.

CAP. CXV.—*An Act to provide for the Retirement of the present Bishops of London and Durham.* (29th July, 1856.)

The sees of London and Durham to become vacant. An annual pension of 6,000*l.*, during his life, to be paid to the Bishop of London, and an annual pension of 4,500*l.*, during his life, to the Bishop of Durham; the Bishop of London to retain the residence at Fulham.

SCOTLAND.

REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

CAP. XXVIII.—*An Act to make further provision for rendering Reformatory and Industrial Schools in Scotland more available for the benefit of Vagrant Children.* (23rd June, 1856.)

A decree may be obtained against parents for the support of children in reformatory schools, for payment of weekly sums enforceable weekly. Young persons may be kept in custody for forty-eight hours before the order is pronounced for their transmission to school. The sheriff or magistrate may, on application of the directors of any school, or of the inspector of the poor of the parish, if satisfied that a suitable opening of employment for any such young person has occurred, discharge him from such school, before the expiry of the period for which he may have been sent there. Local reformatories may receive youthful offenders and vagrant children.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

19° & 20° VICTORIA.

SERIES E.—LAW, JUSTICE, AND CRIME.

UNITED KINGDOM.

EVIDENCE IN FOREIGN SUITS.

CAP. CXIII.—*An Act to provide for taking Evidence in Her Majesty's Dominions in relation to Civil and Commercial Matters pending before Foreign Tribunals.* (29th July, 1856.)

Any Court or Judge may order examination of witnesses in this country in relation to any civil or commercial matter pending before a foreign tribunal. A certificate of Ambassador, or Consul General, will be sufficient evidence in support of such an application.

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

STATUTES NOT IN USE REPEAL.

CAP. LXIV.—*An Act to repeal certain Statutes which are not in use.* (21st July, 1856.)

ENGLAND AND WALES.

METROPOLITAN POLICE.

CAP. II.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to the Metropolitan Police* (28th February, 1856.)

One commissioner of police only to be hereafter appointed, and two assistant commissioners. The salary of the commissioner not to exceed 1,500*l.*, and that of the assistant commissioners 800*l.* each.

TRIAL OF OFFENCES.

CAP. XVI.—*An Act to empower the Court of Queen's Bench to order certain Offenders to be tried at the Central Criminal Court.* (11th April, 1856.)

The Court of Queen's Bench may order any indictment which has been removed into that Court to be tried at the Central Criminal Court. The

same Court may order any person charged with any offence committed out of the jurisdiction of the Central Criminal Court to be tried at that Court, and thereupon a certiorari shall issue to remove the indictment into the Central Criminal Court.

GRAND JURIES.

CAP. LIV.—*An Act to facilitate the Despatch of Business before Grand Juries in England and Wales.* (14th July, 1856.)

Witnesses examined before grand juries to be sworn in the presence of the jurors. It shall not be necessary for witnesses to be sworn in open court.

POLICE (COUNTIES AND BOROUGHES).

CAP. LXIX.—*An Act to render more effectual the Police in Counties and Boroughs in England and Wales.* (21st July, 1856.)

Where a constabulary is not already established for the whole of a county, the justices in general or quarter sessions to cause the same to be established. If already established in part of a county, then for the residue of such county. Not to apply to counties where parties have sent to Secretary of State a report, as required by 2 & 3 Vict., c. 93, for the establishment of police. And where constabularies have been established in divisions of a county, such establishments to be consolidated into one county police force. Her Majesty in Council may require separate police districts, to be constituted in counties, and on representation from boroughs may arrange terms of consolidation with counties. The justices of every county, and the watch committee of every borough, to transmit, in the month of October of every year, statements as to crime to the Secretary of State. On certificate of Secretary of State that an efficient police has been established in any county or borough, one-fourth part of the charge for pay and clothing to be paid by the Treasury; but not when population does not exceed 5,000, and not consolidated with police of a county. The separate police in such places (having a population of 15,000) not to be superseded without the authority of the Secretary of State.

CURSITOR BARON OF THE EXCHEQUER.

CAP. LXXXVI.—*An Act to abolish the Office of Cursitor Baron of the Exchequer.* (29th July, 1856.)

COUNTY COURTS AMENDMENT.

CAP. CVIII.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to the County Courts.* (29th July, 1856.)

CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

CAP. CXVIII.—*An Act to amend the Act of the last Session of Parliament for diminishing Expense and Delay in the Administration of Criminal Justice in certain cases.* (29th July, 1856.)

SCOTLAND.

SMALL DEBTS IMPRISONMENT ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. XLVI.—*An Act to exempt Imprisonment under the Act 5 Geo. IV., c. 96, from the Operation of the Act abolishing in Scotland Imprisonment for Civil Debts of small Amount.* (14th July, 1856.)

Nothing in the Act 5 & 6 Will. IV., c. 70, to apply to imprisonment under 5 Geo. IV., c. 96.

PROCEDURE BEFORE JUSTICES.

CAP. XLVIII.—*An Act for amending the Procedure before Magistrates and Justices of Peace in Scotland.* (14th July, 1856.)

Pleading, &c., not necessary to be in writing when the fine does not exceed five pounds, exclusive of the cost of procedure, or the imprisonment does not exceed thirty days.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER.

CAP. LVI.—*An Act to constitute the Court of Exchequer in Scotland, and to regulate Procedure in Matters connected with the Exchequer.* (21st July, 1856.)

The Court of Session to be the Court of Exchequer in Scotland, and one of the Lords Ordinary in the Court of Session to be Lord Ordinary in Exchequer causes.

BANKRUPTCY.

CAP. LXXIX.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to Bankruptcy in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

Constitution and effects of notour Bankruptcy.—§ 7 to 11. Bankruptcy is constituted by sequestration or by insolvency. Bankruptcy of a company is constituted by the same ways, or by any of the partners being bankrupts for a company debt. Bankruptcy to commence from the time when its several requisites concur. Deeds made void, and alienation of property voidable, may be set aside by way of action or by trustee.

Pari passu ranking of diligence.—§ 12. Arrestments and poindings used sixty days prior to the constitution of bankruptcy, or within four months thereafter, to rank *pari passu*, as if they had all been used of the same date, subject to certain exceptions.

Sequestration when competent.—§ 13 to 15. Sequestration may be awarded of the estate of any person:—1st, In the case of a living debtor. On his own petition, or on the petition of creditors. 2nd, In the case of a deceased

debtor. On the petition of a mandatory, or on the petition of creditors. The qualification of a creditor petitioning or concurring in a debt of not less than 50*l.* if alone; of 70*l.* if two; and 100*l.* if three or more. Petitions for sequestration when the debtor is in life must be presented within four months of his bankruptcy; and when he is dead at any time after the debtor's death, but no sequestration to be awarded until six months after his death, unless he was bankrupt at the time of his death, or his successors concur in the petition.

Interim preservation of estate.—§ 16, 17. The court may take measures to preserve the estate before sequestration. After sequestration bankrupt's papers may be sealed up.

Forum and form of petition.—§ 18 to 20. Sequestration may be awarded by the Court of Session, or by the sheriff of any county in which the debtor resided or carried on business for the year preceding the date of the petition. Later sequestrations to be remitted to the first in date. No proceeding under order of sheriff to be effectual except for preservation of estate. §§ 21 to 28 refer to form of petition and productions therewith, and citation.

Procedure on petitions.—§ 29 to 48. Sequestration is forthwith awarded on petition by debtor, or after citation and hearing parties when petition is not by debtor. Sequestration may be recalled by the debtor within forty days, and at any future time, provided nine-tenths in number and value of the creditors apply for the same. Pending any petition for recall the proceedings are not stayed. A majority of creditors in number, and four-fifths in value, may resolve that the estate be wound up under a deed of arrangement. The Lord Ordinary may make arrangement for interim management. Sequestration to commence to take effect on and from the date of the first deliverance on any petition for sequestration, which is held to be the date of the sequestration, although the sequestration be not actually awarded until a later date. Warrant of protection or liberation may be granted to the debtor, the effect of which is to protect or liberate the debtor from arrest in Great Britain and Ireland and her Majesty's dominions for civil debt contracted previous to the date of sequestration.

Ranking of claims.—§ 49 to 66. Creditor may vote and rank for principal and interest to date of sequestration. When the claim depends on a contingency, the creditor may apply to the sheriff or trustee to put a valuation thereon; the same as respects annuities. Creditor not to sue cautioner after the date of sequestration except for the value so fixed, and the arrears of annuity and interest thereon. The obligant bound to a creditor along with the bankrupt is not free from liability for debt in respect of any vote given or dividend drawn by the creditor. To entitle any creditor who holds a security over any part of the estate to be ranked for a dividend he must put a specified value on such security, and deduct such value from his debt, and specify the balance. The value of claim against a company to be deducted from claim against partners.

Election and removal or registration of trustee and commissioners.—§§ 67 to 76. A meeting of creditors shall be held to elect a trustee, and the same to be declared by the sheriff; the trustee to find security for a sum to be fixed by the creditors. A majority in number and value of the creditors present, at any meeting duly called for the purpose, may remove the trustee, or accept the resignation. At the meeting for the election of a trustee, the creditors present shall elect three commissioners from among the creditors.

Protection and allowance to bankrupt.—§§ 77, 78. The same majority of creditors in number and value may grant personal protection to the bankrupt, and renew it from time to time. An allowance may also be voted to bankrupt not exceeding 3*l.* 3*s.* per week.

Duties of trustee and commissioners.—§§ 79 to 86. The trustee is to take possession of estate and books, and make up an inventory; the bankrupt to make up the state of his affairs, and to give information and grant deeds. The trustee shall manage, realize, and recover all the funds, the money to be lodged at interest, under penalty for his keeping such in his hands. He must keep a rederunt book, and send copy of accounts to accountant. The commissioners are to superintend the proceedings of the trustee. The judicial factor, trustee, and commissioners, are amenable to the Lord Ordinary and Sheriff.

Examination of bankrupt, calling of meetings, &c.—§§ 87 to 101. The sheriff to name a day for bankrupt's examination, and he must answer all lawful questions, and produce documents, under penalty of imprisonment. If any latent partner of a company whose estates have been sequestrated does not acknowledge that he is a partner on or before the day appointed for the examination of the known partners, he is not entitled to the benefits or privileges of this Act.

Extent of trustees' right.—§§ 102 to 106. The act and warrant of confirmation in favour of the trustee transfers and vests in him the whole property of the debtor, viz.: all moveable estates, and all heritable estates in Scotland, England, Ireland, and other British dominions. Acquisitions of bankrupt, after the sequestration, to belong to the creditors. The trustee may complete feudal titles or grant such rights as bankrupt could do. He may get property transferred to him, although the heir of the bankrupt has made up titles.

Effect of sequestration on ranking of creditors.—§§ 107 to 120. A sequestration is equivalent to an adjudication in competition, and to arrestment and pouding; and no arrestment or pouding executed of the funds or effects of the bankrupt, on or after the sixtieth day prior to the sequestration to be effectual. Presenting of or concurring in a petition for sequestration, or lodging a claim in the hands of a trustee or sheriff, interrupts prescription. § 110. When the sequestration of the estates of a deceased debtor is dated within seven months after his death, any preference or security for any prior debt acquired by legal diligence

on or after the sixtieth day before his death, or subsequent to his death ; and any preference or security acquired for a prior debt by any act or deed of the debtor which has not been lawfully completed for a period of more than sixty days before his death ; and any confirmation as executor-creditor after the debtor's death to be of no effect in competition with the trustees. Acts and payments by bankrupt after sequestration are null and void. §§ 112 to 120 relate to the realization of heritable estate.

Payment of dividends.—§§ 121 to 136. The whole estate, when reduced into money, shall, after paying all necessary charges and a commission to the trustee, be divided among creditors. Workmen's wages to be privileged. The creditor must produce his ground of debt two months before payment of the first dividend, and one month subsequent to dividends. Creditors resident abroad may lodge ground of debt fourteen days previous to the time fixed for the payment of dividend. The trustee to make up and exhibit to commissioners the state of the funds, and the commissioners to resolve as to payment of dividend. The trustee is to examine and reject or admit claims and make up list of creditors entitled to payment of dividend and to publish and send notices of such payments. Creditors may appeal within a limited period.

Discharge of bankrupt.—§§ 137 to 141. Offers of composition may be made at the meeting for election of trustee, and, if entertained, to be disposed of at the meeting after the bankrupt's examination. Offer of composition may also be made at the meeting after bankrupt's examination. The trustee's accounts to be audited before the composition be approved of, but until the deliverance of the lord ordinary or sheriff the sequestration does not cease. If offer be rejected, no other to be entertained unless nine-tenths of creditors ranked agree. The bankrupt may be discharged without composition with consent of creditors, and after two years without consent. Preferences, payments, and collusive agreements for discharge to be void. The bankrupt to forfeit his privileges if participant in giving such preferences.

Trustee's discharge.—§ 142 to 145. After a final division of the fund the trustee shall call a meeting of creditors for his discharge, and after he has produced all documents, accounts, &c., he is to lodge unclaimed dividends at the bank. Any surplus of the bankrupt's estate and effects to be paid to bankrupt. § 146 to 163 refer to accountants in bankruptcy. § 164 to 166 to the judicial power for winding up the estates of parties deceased. § 167. *Cessio bonorum.* § 169 to 177. Judicial proceedings. § 178 to 185. Miscellaneous provisions.

DEEDS.

CAP. LXXXIX.—*An Act to abolish unnecessary Forms in the framing of Deeds in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

Pages of deeds and writings need not be marked by numbers.

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JUDICIAL PROCEDURE.

CAP. XCL.—*An Act to amend and re-enact certain Provisions of an Act of the 54th of George the First, relating to Judicial Procedure and Securities for Debts in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

An arrestment executed as in the hands of persons out of Scotland, not to have the effect of interpellating such person from paying to the original creditor, unless he knew of such arrestment having been used. The Court of Session may regulate judicial sales.

IRELAND.

JUVENILE CONVICT PRISON.

CAP. XXIV.—*An Act for enabling the Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland to acquire certain Lands for the site of a Prison for the Reception of Juvenile Convicts.* (23rd June, 1856.)

PEACE PRESERVATION.

CAP. XXXVI.—*An Act for the better Preservation of the Peace in Ireland.* (30th June, 1856.)

SAINT SEPULCHRE'S MANOR (DUBLIN).

CAP. LVII.—*An Act to abolish the Jurisdiction of the Court of the Liberties and Manor of Saint Sepulchre, in and near Dublin; and for the future Regulation of certain Markets of the said Manor.* (21st July, 1856.)

GRAND JURIES.

CAP. LXIII.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to Grand Juries in Ireland.* (21st July, 1856.)

On completion of the general valuation of rateable property, all grand jury assessments to be assessed according to the final list of such valuation. All tolls of roads, bridges, railways, canals, gas and water works, &c., liable to poor-rates to be liable to grand jury rates and county cess.

PRISONS.

CAP. LXVIII.—*An Act to further amend the Laws relating to Prisons.* (21st July, 1856.)

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COURT OF CHANCERY (RECEIVERS.)

CAP. LXXVII.—*An Act to amend the Law and Practice of the Court of Chancery in Ireland, in relation to the Appointment of Receivers over Real Estate, and to expedite the Sale of Estates in the said Court.* (29th July, 1856.)

The Court to have a discretion in appointing receivers; but no receiver to be appointed where the sum due does not exceed 150*l.*, nor where the rental of the estate over which the receiver is to be appointed does not exceed 100*l.* per annum.

UNLAWFUL OATHS.

CAP. LXXVIII.—*An Act to continue the Act of the 2nd & 3rd years of Her Majesty, § 74, for preventing the administering and taking of unlawful Oaths in Ireland, as amended by an Act of the 11th & 12th of Her Majesty's reign.* (29th July, 1856.)

COURT OF APPEAL IN CHANCERY.

CAP. XCII.—*An Act to constitute a Court of Appeal in Chancery, and to amend the Law relating to Appeals from the Incumbered Estates Court in Ireland.* (29th July, 1856.)

COURTS OF COMMON LAW.

CAP. CII.—*An Act to further amend the Procedure in, and to enlarge the jurisdiction of the Superior Courts of Common Law in Ireland.* (29th July, 1856.)

The Court or Judge may, by consent of parties, try questions of fact. The Court or Judge to have power, upon application, to direct arbitration before trial; and also to direct arbitration at time of trial when issue of facts is left to his decision. Whenever the parties to any deed or instrument in writing, to be hereafter made or executed, shall agree that any differences between them shall be referred to arbitration, and any one of the parties so agreeing shall nevertheless commence an action at law, or suit in Equity, against the other parties, the Court in which the action or suit is brought may stay proceedings. On failure of parties or arbitrators, the judge may appoint single arbitrator or umpire. When reference is to two arbitrators, and one party fail to appoint, the other party may appoint arbitrator to act alone. An agreement or submission in writing may be made rule of Court, unless a contrary intention appear. An affirmation to be received instead of oath when the witness refuses to be sworn for conscientious motives. Besides numerous other clauses relating to evidence, &c., &c., by § 85 it is enacted that an equitable defence may be pleaded and equitable replication made.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

19° & 20° VICTORIA.

SERIES G.—POPULATION, MUNICIPAL, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

HOUSE OF COMMONS OFFICES.

CAP. I.—*An Act to regulate certain Offices of the House of Commons.*
(28th February, 1856.)

INDEMNITY.

CAP. LXXIII.—*An Act to indemnify such persons in the United Kingdom as have omitted to qualify themselves for Offices and Employments, and to extend the time limited for those purposes respectively.* (29th July, 1856.)

CORRUPT PRACTICES PREVENTION.

CAP. LXXXIV.—*An Act to continue the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act, 1854.* (29th July, 1856.)

GREAT BRITAIN.

SURVEY OF GREAT BRITAIN, &c.

CAP. LXI.—*An Act to continue an Act for the Survey of Great Britain, Berwick-upon-Tweed, and the Isle of Man.* (21st July, 1856.)

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

LEASES AND SALES OF SETTLED ESTATES.

CAP. CXX.—*An Act to facilitate Leases and Sales of Settled Estates.*
(29th July, 1856.)

The Court of Chancery may authorize leases and sales of settled estates.

SERIES G.

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ENGLAND AND WALES.

COATHAM MARRIAGES VALIDITY.

CAP. LXX.—*An Act to render valid certain Marriages in the Church at Coatham, in the Parish of Kirk Leatham, in the County of York.* (29th July, 1856.)

CHARITIES.

CAP. LXXVI.—*An Act to continue for a limited time the Exemption of certain Charities from the operation of the Charitable Trusts Act.* (29th July, 1856.)

INTESTATES' PERSONAL ESTATES.

CAP. XCIV.—*An Act for the uniform administration of Intestates' Estates.* (29th July, 1856.)

Special customs concerning the distribution of personal estates in the city and in the province of York to cease.

MARRIAGE AND REGISTRATION ACTS AMENDMENT.

CAP. CXIX.—*An Act to amend the Provisions of the Marriage and Registration Acts.* (29th July, 1856.)

No notice of marriage to be read or published before the poor-law guardians, or to be transmitted to the clerk of such guardians. Every notice of marriage must be accompanied by a solemn declaration of one of the parties that there is no lawful hindrance to such marriage. A notice of marriage without license to be affixed in the Superintendent Registrar's office. A notice of marriage by license not to be suspended in the office of such registrar. In case of marriage by license, notice of marriage to be given to the superintendent of only the district in which either of the parties so intending marriage resides; or to the registrar of the district in Ireland, if one of the parties reside there. A certificate of proclamation of banns in Scotland as to party residing there is equivalent to superintendent registrar's certificate. In case of marriage by license, certificate of the notice thereof may be given by the superintendent registrar (unless the marriage be forbidden), and thereupon the marriage may be solemnized. For the license to marry, the superintendent registrar to be entitled to 1*l.* 10*s.* over the amount paid for the stamp necessary. Marriage may be solemnized in registered buildings by the minister who ordinarily officiates, or with his consent by other minister engaged for the purpose. Marriages contracted before the registrar may be solemnized with the religious ceremony ordained by the Church or persuasion of which the parties members are. The superintendent registrar to whom notice is given may grant license for marriage in a district in which neither of the parties reside, except as to parties belonging to the Society of Friends, or professing the Jewish religion. The superintendent registrar's presence at marriages in the Registrar's Office to be optional,

but if he be present at the request of the parties he is entitled to a fee of 10s. if the marriage be by license, and 5s. if it be without license. The Registrar General may appoint registrar of marriages, and such a registrar may appoint a deputy. Proof of the observance of this Act, and of the recited Acts, not necessary to the validity of marriages. In cases of fraudulent marriages the guilty party to forfeit all property accruing from the marriage. Marriages of Quakers or Jews may be solemnized by license. The Registrar-General to furnish marriage register books and forms to the Secretary of the West London Synagogue of British Jews. Searches are to be allowed, and extracts given from the returns of certified places of worship made to the Registrar-General, on payment of 1s. if the return extends over a period not more than ten years, 6d. more for every additional ten years, and the further sum of 2s. 6d. for every single certified copy or extract. The Act not to extend to Ireland or Scotland, and to come into operation on the first day of January, 1857.

SCOTLAND.

REGISTRATION OF VOTERS.

CAP. LVIII.—*An Act to amend the Law for the Registration of Persons entitled to Vote in the Election of Members to serve in Parliament for Burghs in Scotland.* (21st July, 1856.)

Assessors to make out a list of voters, and to publish such list. Persons omitted in such lists to lodge claim, and lists of voters and claimants to be delivered to town clerks. The valuation rolls to be open to inspection for any purpose relating to any claim or objection by or against such persons, and to be *prima facie* evidence of matters stated therein. The town clerks to transmit abstracts of lists to sheriffs, and they are to revise and correct the lists. Persons dissatisfied may appeal, and all appeals in burghs to be disposed of by the 21st, and in counties by the 31st October.

COMMISSIONERS OF SUPPLY.

CAP. XCIII.—*An Act to constitute all legally qualified persons in Scotland Commissioners of Supply without being named in an Act of Supply.* (29th July, 1856.)

MARRIAGE LAW AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCVI.—*An Act for amending the Law of Marriage in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

No irregular marriage contracted in Scotland by declaration, acknowledgment, or ceremony, to be valid unless one of the parties had, at the date thereof, his or her usual place of residence there, or had lived in Scotland for twenty-one days next preceding such marriage.

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POOR LAW AMENDMENT.

CAP. CXVII.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Relief of the Poor in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

Two general superintendents to be appointed to execute all the powers conferred upon the Commissioners. Annual instalment of repayment of money borrowed need not exceed one-thirtieth of the sum borrowed.

IRELAND.

SECRETARY TO THE POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS.

CAP. XIV.—*An Act to abolish the office of Secretary to the Poor Law Commissioners in Ireland.* (11th April, 1856.)

DWELLINGS FOR LABOURING CLASSES.

CAP. LXV.—*An Act to encourage the Providing of improved Dwellings for the Labouring Classes in Ireland.* (21st July, 1856.)

A Tenement, within the act, to be any dwelling-house with not more than half an acre (if any) of land, as a garden or cultivated allotment, the tenure of which shall have been by the year, half-year, quarter, month, or week, and of which the rent shall not have exceeded the rate of twelve shillings by the month. The 15th section of "Summary Jurisdiction (Ireland) Act, 1851," to be applicable to the delivery of the possession of any tenement within this Act when wrongfully overheld, in the same manner as it now applies to delivery of the possession of any tenement within the said Act. Overholding tenant liable to full rent, and outgoing tenant to have compensation for crops. This Act not to deprive the landlord of other remedies at law or in equity.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

19° & 20° VICTORIA.

SERIES H.—HEALTH, ENCLOSURES, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

SHEEP, &c., CONTAGIOUS DISEASES PREVENTION.

CAP. CL.—*An Act to continue certain Acts to prevent the spreading of Contagious or Infectious Disorders among Sheep, Cattle, and other Animals.* (29th July, 1856.)

GREAT BRITAIN.

TURNPIKE ACTS CONTINUANCE.

CAP. XLIX.—*An Act to continue certain Turnpike Acts in Great Britain.* (14th July, 1856.)

ENGLAND AND WALES.

DRAINAGE ADVANCES ACTS AMENDMENTS.

CAP. IX.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to the Advance of Public Money to promote the improvement of Land.* (14th March, 1856.)

If commissioners think an advance expedient, they may issue a provisional certificate with the sanction of the Treasury. The Treasury may direct advances to be made.

COMMON INCLOSURE.

CAP. XI.—*An Act to authorize the Inclosure of certain Lands, in pursuance of a Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for England and Wales.* (11th April, 1856.)

TURNPIKE TRUSTS ARRANGEMENT.

CAP. XII.—*An Act to confirm certain Provisional Orders made under an Act of the fifteenth year of her present Majesty to facilitate Arrangements for the Relief of Turnpike Trusts.* (11th April, 1856.)

SERIES H.

G

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DELAMERE FOREST.

CAP. XIII.—*An Act to make provision for the Management of certain Lands belonging to Her Majesty within the former limits of the late Forest of Delamere, in the County of Chester.* (11th April, 1856.)

PUBLIC HEALTH.

CAP. XXVI.—*An Act to confirm Provisional Orders of the General Board of Health applying the Public Health Act, 1848, to the districts of Waterloo with Seaforth, West Ham, Sowerby Bridge, and Moss-side; for Alteration of the Boundaries of the Districts of Rusholme and Bishop Auckland; and for other purposes.* (23rd June, 1856.)

WHICHWOOD FOREST.

CAP. XXXII.—*An Act to amend the Whichwood Disafforesting Act, 1853,* (23rd June, 1856.)

MAGDALEN HOSPITAL, BATH.

CAP. XLV.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for Saint Mary Magdalen Hospital, near Bath.* (14th July, 1856.)

GENERAL BOARD OF HEALTH.

CAP. LXXXV.—*An Act to continue the General Board of Health.* (29th July, 1856.)

LUNATIC ASYLUM ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. LXXXVII.—*An Act to amend the Lunatic Asylum Act, 1853.* (29th July, 1856.)

COMMON INCLOSURE.

CAP. CVI.—*An Act to authorize the Inclosure of certain Lands, in pursuance of a Special Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for England and Wales.* (29th July, 1856.)

SMOKE NUISANCE ABATEMENT.

CAP. CVII.—*An Act to amend the Smoke Nuisance Abatement (Metropolis) Act, 1853.*

The provision that the said Act shall not apply to any furnaces in glass works or pottery works repealed.

STOKE POGES HOSPITAL.

CAP. CXL.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for Stoke Poges Hospital, in the County of Bucks, with certain alterations.* (29th July, 1856.)

SCOTLAND.

NUISANCES REMOVAL, &c.

CAP. CIII.—*An Act to make better provision for the Removal of Nuisances, Regulation of Lodging Houses, and the Health of Towns in Scotland.* (29th July, 1856.)

IRELAND.

TRANSFER OF WORKS.

CAP. XXXVII.—*An Act to amend the Act for Transferring to Counties in Ireland certain Works, constructed wholly or in part with the Public Money.* (30th June, 1856.)

DRAINAGE.

CAP. LXII.—*An Act to provide for the Maintenance of Navigations made in connection with Drainage, and to make further provision in relation to Works of Drainage in Ireland.* (21st July, 1856.)

The navigation in the district of Lough Neagh to be divided into two navigations for the purposes of this Act. Navigations to vest in trustees for the use of counties. The Commissioner of Public Works to determine what are navigation works and what are drainage works. Navigation trustees enabled to purchase and hold lands, &c. A list of the rates or tolls which the trustees may appoint to be taken, to be affixed in conspicuous places.

ENCUMBERED ESTATES.

CAP. LXVII.—*An Act to extend the Period for applying for a Sale under the Act for facilitating the Sale and Transfer of Encumbered Estates in Ireland, and to amend the said Act.* (21st July, 1856.)

TURNPIKE ACTS CONTINUANCE.

CAP. LXXI.—*An Act to continue certain Acts for regulating Turnpike Roads in Ireland.* (29th July, 1856.)

BURIAL GROUNDS.

CAP. XCVIII.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to the Burial of the Dead in Ireland.* (29th July, 1856.)

LUNATIC ASYLUMS (SUPERANNUATIONS.)

CAP. XCIX.—*An Act to amend the Acts relating to Lunatic Asylums in Ireland, so far as relates to Superannuations.* (29th July, 1856.)

HOSPITALS (DUBLIN.)

CAP. CX.—*An Act for the better Regulation of the House of Industry Hospital and other Hospitals in Dublin, supported wholly or in part by Parliamentary Grants.* (29th July, 1856.)

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